

T H E  
LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL  
M A G A Z I N E,  
A N D  
B R I T I S H R E V I E W,  
For A P R I L, 1794.

MEMOIRS OF DR. ROBERT HENRY.

WITH AN ELEGANT HEAD.

THE life of Dr. Henry, like that of most men of literary pursuits, may be comprized in a short compass. He was the son of James Henry, farmer at Muirtown, in the parish of St. Ninian's, North Britain, and of Jean Galloway, daughter of — Galloway, of Burrowmeadow, in Stirlingshire. He was born on the 18th of February, 1718; and having early resolved to devote himself to a literary profession, was educated first under a Mr. John Nicholison, at the parish-school of St. Ninian's, and for some time at the grammar-school of Stirling. He completed his course of academical study at the university of Edinburgh, and afterwards became master of the grammar-school of Annan. He was licensed to preach on the 27th of March, 1746, and was the first licentiate of the presbytery of Annan after its erection into a separate presbytery. Soon after, he received a call from a congregation of presbyterian dissenters at Carlisle, where he was ordained in November, 1748. In this station he remained twelve years, and on the 13th of August, 1760, became pastor of a dissenting congregation in Berwick upon Tweed. Here he married, in 1763, Ann Balderston, daughter of Thomas Balderston, surgeon in Berwick; by whom he had no children, but with whom he enjoyed to the end of his life a large share of domestic happiness. He was removed from Berwick to be one of the ministers of Edinburgh in November, 1768; was minister of the church of the New Grey Friars from that time till 1776; and then became colleague-minister in the Old Church, and remained in that station till his death. The degree of doctor of divinity was conferred on him by the university of Edinburgh in 1770; and in 1774 he

was unanimously chosen moderator of the general assembly of the church of Scotland, and is the only person on record who obtained that distinction the first time he was a member of the assembly.

While at Carlisle, the doctor employed a chief part of his time in composing sermons, which eased his labours in that department during the rest of his life. When at Berwick, he published a scheme for raising a fund for the benefit of the widows and orphans of protestant dissenting ministers in the north of England, and succeeded in founding that useful and benevolent institution. The success of this plan always gave him peculiar pleasure.

While at Berwick, he planned the scheme of his History; but he found his residence there an insuperable obstruction to the execution of his plan: this was happily surmounted, by his removal to Edinburgh.

His health had been gradually declining since 1783, so as to oblige him to procure an assistant in his duty as minister. He continued ill till 1790, and was then obliged to relax from his studies. He met death with great equanimity and fortitude. His books he bequeathed to the magistrates, town council, and presbytery of Linlithgow, as the foundation of a public library.

The principal features in the life of Dr. Henry was his planning a new History of Britain, of which he lived to complete the 5th volume in quarto; and left, on his death, the sixth volume incomplete, which has since been finished, and published by Malcolm Laing, Esq.

It is pleasing to find, that, though the first five volumes were published at the risk of the author, and though the work was censured in many periodical publications with unexampled acrimony, perseverance, and even malice, it made its way by its own merit, sold beyond the most sanguine expectations of the author,

and received both praise and patronage from men of the first literary character in the kingdom, and at last rewarded the author, not only with a high degree of celebrity, which he happily lived to enjoy, but with the more solid advantage of 3300*l.* clear profit, besides a pension of 100*l.* from his majesty, obtained by the unsolicited application of the late venerable Earl of Mansfield. Every instance that exhibits merit, forcing its way up to fame and profit, in defiance of unjust opposition, is pleasing to all; and it is an additional triumph of literary justice to be told, that the malevolence directed against Dr. Henry's labours, became fatal to the circulation of the periodical paper from which it had originally proceeded. It appears also, that an historian sometimes, as well as a prophet, gains his celebrity with most difficulty in his own country; since we are told, that though "the abuse of the history, which began in Scotland, was renewed in some of the periodical publications in South Britain, yet in both kingdoms the asperity originated from the same quarter, and the paragraphs and criticisms written in Edinburgh were printed in London." The observations of the English critics in general were caridid.

Dr. Henry did not profess to study the ornaments of language; but his arrangement is uniformly regular and natural, and his style simple and perspicuous. More than this he has not attempted, and this cannot be denied him. He believed that the time which might be spent in polishing or rounding a sentence, was more usefully employed in investigating and ascertaining a fact: and as a book of facts, and solid information, supported by authentic documents, his history will stand a comparison with any other history of the same period. It may be observed, in addition to this, that the style of his general

*preface;*

preface, as having had more labour and consideration bestowed upon it, is very far superior to that of the remainder of the work; in which,

nevertheless, according to the remarks above-cited, there is nothing to disgrace the writer.

# ANECDOTES OF NICHOLAS MACHIAVEL.

**N**ICHOLAS MACHIAVEL was born at Florence on the third day of May, 1469. His father's name was Bernardo: his mother's Bartolommea. They were both descended from illustrious families, which had always borne the most honourable offices under the republic from its first foundation to the time of which we are writing: though it is said to be now almost two ages since the family of Machiavel became extinct, there is one of his descendants still living at Florence, whose name is Giambattista, and whose works prove him to be a learned man.

Though it is known that Bernardo Machiavel, the father of our author, studied jurisprudence; and that his mother Bartolommea dedicated her time to the mules; yet it is impossible, at this remote time, to discover what education they bestowed upon their son: but we may conclude, from the great number of writings which he left behind him, that he was bred to a very hardy temperament of body, to which he joined the most intense application in his studies. It appears by his writings that he was averse from indolence, was very active, studious, and had a heart inclining rather to boldness than to gentleness. Authors pretend to assure us, that being once suspected of hatching a conspiracy against the family of the Medici, he was adjudged by the senate to undergo a very grievous punishment which was common in these times, and that he suffered it without betraying one impression of pain or fear, with his countenance as serene and unruffled as usual: which, if true, was no bad proof of that firm and undaunted spirit

which is visible in every page of his works.

It has been common, for the two last ages, to consider Machiavel as a great historian and politician; and some have regarded him as a complete master in the art of war. Nevertheless, neither his history of Florence, nor his discourse upon Titus Livius, nor his prince, nor his letter to Pope Leo, displays so truly the real bent of his genius as his treatise on the military art. I have read several books which treat this art in detail, particularly French, and it is strange that I have never seen any mention of Machiavel made in them, although it is certain that the most important and material rules contained in these books were borrowed from his treatise on the art of war. It is true, his ideas might have been extended or refined by succeeding writers, in proportion to the progress of the improvement of the art; but all of them, in some degree or other, have reared their fabrics upon the foundation which was laid by him, and have only improved the materials which he extracted from the ignorance of a barbarous age. Nor would it be difficult to prove, that the custom, now so universal, of resting the whole strength of war upon the infantry rather than the cavalry, was derived from him. This improvement holds the first place in the art of war; and that it should have originated from Machiavel is astonishing, when we consider two things; first, that he never was a soldier; and secondly, that in his time the infantry of an army was held in great contempt. Never to have borne arms, and yet to have published an open declaration

tion against an established custom, and to be successful too against prejudice and opinion, was a triumph worthy of the genius of Machiavel; and proves that he was not conspicuous as an historian and politician only, but that he was eminently so in the art of war also.

To these three distinguished titles we may add that of a statesman; that is, a practical politician, in opposition to the theory of the study. How lucky was it for the world, that there were found (in I know not what library) and published, those letters which he wrote during his different embassies at foreign courts, and those which he dictated in quality of secretary to the republic! By the first we discover how great were his diligence, his penetration, his acuteness, his address, his art in fathoming the human soul. We must dive deeply into these letters, to discover the extraordinary talents with which nature had endued him, and what good use he made of them; how he managed and restrained the cruel disposition of the brutal Duke Valentine, and drew forth from his deceitful soul the most secret designs, the most concealed plots, always opposing his dark impostures with the most artful simplicity, and fathoming his very soul; how he bridled the turbulent spirit of that other milcreant, John Paul Baglioni, continually counteracting him, outwitting him, and alarming his perfidious heart with such terrors as would have prevented him from his daring designs, had it been possible for any man to effect such a miracle: how he knew to wind himself into the humour of that terrible pope, Julian II. to flatter him, to gain his good graces, and to win him to the best interests of his republic. How unlucky it is, that we are ignorant of his negotiations with the emperor, and with the king of France, to whose courts he had been deputed; and that we have not in our possession those

discourses which he made to so many princes with whom he was engaged on public affairs, and of those harangues by which he roused his fellow citizens to act against the foes of his country.

By the second (letters, which he wrote in quality of secretary to the republic) we discern how the public councils were elucidated by his understanding, and with what address he formed all his projects, and enticed every one to act the part in them which he had allotted for them; how he directed even the inferior members of the state with most artful policy, here exercising his persuasion, and there his authority; encouraging, rewarding, exhorting, praising, blaming, repudiating, in every instance exactly conforming to the time, the business, the circumstances, and the persons.

Let us recollect all these truths together, let us weigh them carefully, and let us consider Machiavel as a simpleton! which many very sagacious monks have been pleased to do, and in particular the jesuit Lucchesini!—In truth, it is not contended that he was possessed of good morals.—But that he was a simpleton!—Good heaven! one must be a monk indeed, to advance so impossible a falsehood.

Exclusive of that train of close and serious thinking which was necessary to discharge the duties of the important employment that he held, Machiavel possessed so refined a gaiety, so much good humour, so various and so sprightly, that he seemed to have two souls in one body; one entirely serious, and the other entirely comic. Let those who affect to be so enraptured with the Decameron, read attentively his tale of Belfegore, and let them tell me whether there is in the first any tale that can be compared with the latter, whether we consider it with respect to the singular invention displayed in it, the ease and humour of the thoughts, which



which blend so gracefully with each other, or the correct elegance of the style: inasmuch that, if Machiavel had taken the trouble to compose a number of these tales, it is very probable that Boccace would not have held the first rank as a novelist.

And what shall we say of his comedies? How admirably are the unities of action, time, and place, united in them! What natural characters are displayed in them! What well-conceived intrigues, and how happily unravelled! And the whole is so finely expressed in a chaste and lively style, with such abundance of wit, and forms so enchanting an assemblage, that the attention is roused, the heart is interested, the soul is charmed, and we forget that we are only reading a comedy. Let us therefore exclaim with the reverend father Lucchiesini, and half a million of other monks—let us exclaim, in the name of truth, “Machiavel was a simpleton! O what a simpleton!”—— Simpletons indeed!

We can discover by the writings of Machiavel, that he passed the greatest part of his life in severe study, continually engaged, either in topics interesting to mankind, or in the zealous and honourable service of his country. Most authors who have written of him, have affirmed, that he lived and died poor; but as the ideas of poverty and riches are relative to the respective circumstances of people, it

seems to me that the word poor is very improperly applied to a citizen of Florence, who, like Machiavel, (as appears by the will which he made five years before his death) possessed a good house, free from all charges, a vineyard, fields, and thickets, from all which he was furnished with every necessary for himself and family, without being obliged to the good will of his neighbours.

I have already mentioned the time of his birth. He died on the 22d of June, 1527, in the 58th year of his age. In his last moments, he evinced the most friendly dispositions to the christian faith, without murmuring against heaven or its decrees, as has been insinuated by the lying Lucchiesini and his abettors; which may be incontrovertibly proved by a letter written by one of his sons to a near relation of his father's. The original is still preserved, and is to the following purport:—

“Most dear Francis,

“I cannot refrain from tears, in telling you that my father died the 22d of this month of a cholick, occasioned by a medicine which he had taken two days before. He confessed his sins to father Mateo, who continued with him till his death. Our father has left us in great poverty, as you shall know. When you return hither, I shall tell you every thing. I am, &c.

June, 1527.

PIETRO MACHIAVELLI.”

#### OF THE METHOD OF STUDYING, READING, AND SELECTING FROM AUTHORS.

BY THE MARQUIS D'ARGENSON.

**I** Return with pleasure to the favourite subject of my reflections, because it is that of my taste and amusement; namely, reading and study. There are two sorts of them in the cabinet; the one belongs to our professions and functions: there-

fore the magistrate ought to study the general principles of jurisprudence, and give the greatest attention to affairs submitted to his decision. The minister, of whatever kind his administration may be, ought to study the principles of the object

object committed to his care, and apply them as occasions require. The father of a family is obliged to think of what may secure or increase his fortune, to take care of his property, and keep an account with himself as well as with others. These are necessary studies and occupations, and must not be neglected. But there is another kind of study, merely pleasurable, free in its object, and which may serve as a relaxation from serious and necessary ones. There are people happy enough not to be obliged to employ themselves but in studies of that nature. Women, especially, if they be fortunate enough to amuse themselves with reading, cannot read too much; by a little method, and a proper choice of books, they will find infinite remedies against lassitude, and abundant sources of instruction.

Life, for a person who wishes to be virtuous and amiable, is a continual study. We improve in society by living and conversing with those whose conversations and examples are worth hearing and imitating: we learn to discover and avoid the ridicule of certain persons, whom we but too frequently meet with, but with whom we ought to form no connection. However this study of society cannot fill up all the moments of life; it often experiences forced interruptions, longer than we would wish for. It is then we ought to apply ourselves to study in solitude; that is to say, to reading: but we must know how to read to advantage; for doing it without method, choice, or taste, is a real loss to the cultivation of the mind; it serves, at most, to fill up some idle moments; and, when we read in this manner, although we may have a good memory, we neither learn nor retain any thing.

For my part, my method of reading with advantage, books of all kinds, foreign to my profession, is as follows. In the first place, I recollect the first principles of all the

sciences I learned in my youth; afterwards I consider in which of these sciences I wish to gain a more extensive knowledge; I do not seek it in didactic books, in treatises made precisely to instruct; such kind of reading would form too profound a study, and require too much application, in which people who quitted other serious studies for it, would find no relaxation: I seek for books which contain the history of each science, the progress it has made in different ages, and the rational deductions of authors and artists, to whom it owes its progress. I am persuaded, that by this historical study alone of the arts and sciences, a man of the world may learn as much as he wishes to know of them, and that a good Encyclopedia might be made by uniting the history of each science and art, and shewing how one derives from the other, and the relations that are between them.

My custom is, with books whose subjects appear interesting, to read them over, and then form a general judgement of the work: afterwards, if I think it worth while, I read them a second time, make extracts of the best part of their contents, and what appears to me most novel, and criticise the principal errors into which the author may have fallen. Such is my method with books of science and history; with respect to those of simple literature, poems, romances, &c. performances of which we must not absolutely deprive ourselves, because they are a dernier resort against the fatigue and uniformity of more serious books, I make no extracts from them, but content myself after reading them over, with writing, in a few words, my opinion upon each, to prevent those who may be tempted to read them after me, the trouble of beginning an author, by whom they would neither be amused nor entertained.

There are books of a frivolous kind, in which I sometimes find sentiments

sentiments worthy of being selected; this is what I do: although the harvest be not abundant, it is, at least, precious. Nothing is, in my opinion, more insupportable, than the continued reading of a collection of poems; they cannot be read but at intervals; yet, in taking them up frequently, till they are all read, very good things are sometimes found in them.

I know of no other manner of judging theatrical pieces, than by the impression they have made upon me, and I am very careful to avoid examining whether they be according to the rules of the drama: in my opinion, there is but one thing to consider, whether there be a kind of probability in the intrigue and characters; if the first be interesting and the last pleasing, I think the piece a good one. If it be well written, in verse or prose, that is another advantage: but the real merit of the work does not consist therein.

The remarks I have made in reading, compose, already, several great volumes: they will not be quite useless to my son, if ever he forms a rational catalogue of his library.

A man, who has not, nor ever will read, must, certainly, from his ignorance, be liable to speak absurdly, for which he will be exposed to ridicule; knowledge of the world, and the conversation of men of sense, will never shelter such a man from raillery: but, on the other hand, a man who has done nothing but read and studied, has no knowledge of the world, and who has never mixed with good company, becomes a stupid and unpolite pedant, and speaks absurdly in another manner; for, as men learn not every thing from books, so books cannot supply the knowledge of the world. The Abbe de Longueue, whose memory and erudition I have spoken so favourably of, was himself an unpolite pedant; we are assured that Hugo Grotius, one of the most learned men at the

beginning of the last century, and who was ambassador in France, about an hundred years ago, was the worst ambassador in the world. As he was ignorant of customs, he understood nothing of what passed at court; he kept company with nobody but pedants of the university, who taught him nothing useful, and from whom he could not learn the manner in which he ought to conduct himself with kings, queens, princes, and ministers.—He went to the worst of all sources to seek information; but what he gathered, he wrote to the States General in fine Latin, for he could not write either in French or Dutch: both himself and his wife were objects of ridicule at the court of France, and nobody read his work, which has since been so much admired, because it contains excellent maxims of natural and public right: yet it will never be learned from this great work, how we ought to act in negotiations: on the contrary, the letters of the President Jeannin, who was a mild and insinuating man; those of the Cardinal d'Ossat, a prudent man, who always made reason triumphant, without offending any body; finally, those of the Comte d'Estrades, whose dispatches are so fine and sensible, as well as elegantly written, are real models to be adopted: but none ought to be servilely imitated: a public man should form a style peculiar to himself, conformable to the character with which he is invested, to the manners of the court from which he is sent, and to that where he resides. Nothing should be more avoided in dispatches than an affectation of wit, but the greatest attention should be given to expose facts in the clearest manner to his court. With respect to memoirs addressed to the court with which he has to treat, there are sometimes reasons for these being more obscure and perplexed.

I have always observed that men of the robe, employed in foreign affairs,

affairs, became more amiable and polished; and that, on the contrary, in intendants, or provincial administrations, they contracted a stupid and impolite manner; the reason is not difficult to be conceived; an ambassador strives to make himself beloved, and the intendant pretends to make himself feared: one must be a courtier, and has two courts to please; the other exercises the despotism of a single court upon its subjects.

But I am wandering too far from my proposed object: I meant to say, that to write books, equally useful and agreeable, a knowledge of the world was preferable to study. It is thus, Saint Evremond and Fontenelle have succeeded. The latter acknowledged to me one day, that he had left off reading: "I have stored my magazine," said he, "a long time ago; at present I sell my merchandize." But, to arrive at this point, three things are necessary; to read and study methodically, to have a good memory, and, finally, a good stock of wit, and a knowledge of the world. Yet we are told Bayle was wanting in the last; but he had so much wit and information, that, on reading his works, no appearance is seen of what he was deficient in. How much must this man have amused himself in composing his Dictionary, and his *Nouvelles de la Republique des Lettres*! He went from object to object, and judged of every thing with liberty, superiority and ease. His Journal is the best that has been, or, perhaps, ever will be composed. Every book is there selected, thoroughly examined, and judged of in a masterly manner. If we may expect such another Journal, it must be the work of a well-composed society, directed by an enlightened president: whoever should establish such a one, would render a great service to sciences and letters; he would prevent authors from wandering, teach them how to treat their subjects, which for the most part, they are ignorant

of, and shew them the defects of their compositions, as well as those of their style. Our academies would not do too much by taking this upon themselves, each according to its province; one company alone would not be sufficient; and it would still be necessary to leave to the Mercure, and the little hebdomadal criticisms, poetry, light literature, and romances. Perhaps there will be, some day, found, among my papers, a rational plan of this reformation of the journals, and reflections upon the extreme utility they might be of, in composing an history of the progress of our knowledge; the most interesting of all histories that can be written.

I have a library, rather considerable, but it is composed of books, all chosen for my own use: it is a misplaced and blameable luxury to have more books than you can read and consult; yet it is the finest, most noble, and, consequently, the most excusable of all luxuries; I confess, if I could enjoy one, it should be this. But it is necessary, at least, to know, of what use books, which we read not ourselves, may be to others: it is both absurd and ridiculous to have such, whose only merit consists in being scarce. With respect to books which have no other recommendation than the goodness of their edition, and the elegance of binding, they are still a luxury; but this is pardonable in those who are rich enough not to miss acquiring a good book, in the hope of having a handsome one, otherways it would be imitating the man, who, having ruined himself in the purchase of picture-frames, was too poor to buy paintings.

When a library is limited, its composition should bespeak the profession of its proprietor: it would be ridiculous to find nothing but poems and romances in that of a magistrate, and not to find in that of a military man either Polybius, or Cæsar's commentaries.

BIO.

## BIOGRAPHIANA;

OR, ANECDOTES OF ILLUSTRIOUS PERSONS.

## NUMBER XXV.

Sir JOHN BARNARD.

THIS citizen of London, *de la vieille roche*, was no less distinguished as a magistrate than as a senator; in each situation he did his duty with the minutest scrupulosity. A young woman, decently dressed, was late at night brought to him at the Mansion-house by a watchman, as a prostitute, she having been found alone late in the streets at midnight. She requested to be heard in her defence. Circumstances were, however, so much against her, that Sir John asked her, if she could produce any person to her character? She said, that her relations lived a great way off, as far as Whitechapel, and that it would be inconvenient to him to wait till they could be produced. He said, as a magistrate his time was that of the public, and their convenience his; and that he would willingly sit up till her friends could come, and endeavour to prevent her being sent to prison. The girl sent to Whitechapel for some of her friends, who gave her an exceedingly good character, and corroborated the reasons she gave for being out so late. This excellent magistrate said, that he had never felt more sincere pleasure in his life, and, after advising her to be more prudent in future, dismissed her.—Our modern magistrates are not sufficiently cautious with respect to sending persons to prison on very trivial suspicions indeed, or in keeping them there by way of punishment for petty crimes; keeping them in those places of wickedness and despair, where, as Dr. Johnson says very well, the lewd inflame the lewd, the wicked encourage the wicked, and where a criminal is taught to do that with more cunning than he had been used to do with

less. Pretty severe corporal punishment, instantly, inflicted in private, would perhaps be the wisest and the most effectual chastisement for small offences. When indeed by association, the idea of the crime would always be connected with that of pain.

Dr. MIDDLETON,

Declared to Dr. Lancaster, that the quotations in his *Life of Cicero* were translated by Lord Hervey. His lordship made the offer, which Middleton did not dare to refuse. The quotations are certainly the worst part of that excellent book. Lord Bolingbroke, however, declared, that he could never get through the book.

Dr. Middleton left behind him in MS. a Treatise against Prayer. Soon after his death, Lord Bolingbroke called upon the widow to beg a perusal of it. The present father of physic in England, no less the father of that art on account of his knowledge and abilities than of his age, bought this pernicious MS. from the widow, and destroyed it. His goodness in this instance endeavouring with equal felicity to obviate the contagion of the mind, as his skill had long before counteracted the diseases and pestilencies of the body.

JOSEPH SIMPSON, Esq.

A tragedy written by this gentleman, and entitled *The Regicide*, was, soon after Dr. Johnson's death, published as a tragedy of his.—Mr. Simpson's *Essay on the Natural and Acquired Endowments requisite for the Study of the Law*, is a very elegant and a very useful performance. It is now become scarce. Much of the scholarship and of the dignity of the profession of the law

is now lost by the attention that every young student thinks fit to pay to special pleading. A sketch of a plan for the study of the law was very lately given by a very eloquent and a very ingenious man. Amongst other things, it consisted of learning the Saxon language by means of Hickes' Grammar, and in reading Rapin's History of England, with every act of parliament that related to each king's reign, immediately after the reign of the king. "That," said the recommender of it, "will give a man ground to stand upon, and will make him completely master not only of the law, but of the reasons upon which it is founded."

Mr. HORNE TOOKE,

In his celebrated speech before Lord Kenyon, respecting the Westminster election, seems more to consult the dignity of the professors of the law, than many of its professors appear to do. In his manly and strong language he tells them—"Causes, which would make a serious man ashamed, are listened to here by the hour with the utmost gravity and solemnity. It is but the other day that you entertained a long and tedious cause, for a dispute of *five shillings*, about a *hog*. The learned counsel, *two or three* deep, laboured the matter for hours, with the deepest researches into the laws, and the most profound arguments, when any one of the numerous counsel on either side, by giving five shillings out of the *first* fee which he received upon the occasion, would still have gained sixteen shillings for saving the honour of the court, and avoiding to make himself and the profession ridiculous."

Over the great court of civil justice at Milan, in Italy, is the following inscription, of which the sense is, perhaps, much better than the Latinity.

In caularum controversiis  
Inimicitie oriuntur,  
Fit amissio expensarum,  
Labor animi exercetur.

Corpus quotidie defatigatur  
Multa & inhonesta crimina deinde confe-  
quantur  
Et qui sæpe credunt obtinere, succumbant  
Et si obtinent (computatis laboribus & ex-  
pensis) nihil obtinent.

In spite, however, of this very excellent advice, we do not find that law-suits are less common in the capital of Lombardy than in other places. Avarice and revenge, like other violent passions, pay little regard to the councils of court wisdom,

Right Hon. CHARLES TOWNSEND.

This gentleman was, perhaps, one of the most correct and entertaining speakers the House of Commons ever knew. He used, however, to compose, and even write down his speeches before he delivered them. Those in general which he delivered in the House of Commons, differed widely from those made in his closet. This habit, however, gave him order and arrangement; two things much neglected by our present orators, and prevented him from being tedious and diffusive, no very uncommon fault amongst our present public speakers. He seldom spoke for more than half an hour. Of the truth of the Christian religion he was so firmly persuaded, that when one day Dr. ———, a celebrated *esprit fort*, made some reflections upon the want of evidence for its belief, Mr. Townsend took him up with much violence, and made a very excellent dissertation in favour of the evidences for it; and the next morning told one of his friends—"You did not know, I suppose, how well I could preach. When I was at college I studied the evidences for Christianity with some diligence, and became convinced of the truth of it." In conversation Mr. Townsend was extremely flashy and brilliant, seldom, however, quoting any passage from our own or the Latin and Greek poets. He was very fond of selections from the Greek and Roman orators, and said



said they were very useful for public speakers. One of the most brilliant speeches he ever made, was composed in consequence of his taking up one of these books by chance, and meeting with something in it that struck his fancy at the time. Mr. Townsend's countenance was extremely difficult to paint. A celebrated professor of painting, to whom, he said, he could not take the expression of his eyes when they were animated. Mr. Townsend in his person was very handsome and manly. He was always constant in his opinion of the impolicy and impracticability of the American war, and used always to wish that our fatal disputes with our Colonies had been left to be settled by Dr. Franklin. Of one of Lord Kaimes's Metaphysical Treatises he said, on looking a little into it, "here is a dull man becoming whimsical, I see!" Though a man of great wit, and of very ready repartee, he professed to have been never able to read Hudibras or Tom Jones. He was prevailed upon by a friend to attempt to read them, but he soon flung them away. A gross foolish fellow was one day praising Mr. Townsend without delicacy and without discrimination. Mr. Townsend could bear it no longer. "Why Sir," said he, "I suppose you call all this flattery, do you not? It is throwing brick-bats at my head, by —."

ZIMMERMAN.

There is a plate of the air against the bite of the Tarantula given in this learned man's *Florilegium, Philologico, Historicum Misense*, 1687, quarto. The effects of the bite of the tarantula are thus described in that miscellany. "Some," says he, "that are bitten by this little animal, leap, others perspire copiously; some tremble all over, others are seized with panic fears; some are like phrenetic and mad persons. The effects indeed differ (says he) according to the constitution of the patient, and according to the dif-

ferent venom of the animal. In all cases, however, music does good." Dr. Cyrillo, however, a very ingenious physician, now living at Naples, and Signor Lanti, physician to the pope, appear to think that these symptoms are in general pretended, and that the bite of the Neapolitan spider is very little more venomous than that of an English one.

LOUIS XIV.

Had so little notion of his own dependance upon the state, that when some one was talking before him of the *etat* and the king, he replied, "*L'etat c'est moi*." Mary of Medicis (it is said) could never be brought to comprehend what was meant by the words, the public good. On the rapidity of Louis's conquests some one made this distich:

Una dies Lotharos, Burgundos Hebdomas una.

Una domat Batavos Luna, annus erit!

One day Lorraine, one week all Flanders quell'd,

One little month the wond'ring Dutch dispell'd.

Then in the course of one revolving sun,  
What conquests shall be made, what battles won!

URBAN VIII.

Made an edict against taking snuff in churches. Pasquin says immediately from Job, "Contra folium quod vento rapitur, ostendis potentiam tuam, & stipulam siccam persequeris." A very ingenious and excellent man, who never suffered intemperance in his house, cards, scandal, late hours, or any of the follies of modish life, said once to a friend of his, "Are there not two lines of Ovid applicable to my manner of living? Ovid, you know, in the person of Apollo, is speaking of the course of the sun, in opposition to the rotation of the earth."

Nitor in adversum, nec me qui cætera, vincit Impetus, & rapido contrarius evehor orbi.

May we not apply to the French emigrants from Lucan —

Velut unica rebus  
Spes fover afflictis, patrios excedere Muros.

And from Virgil, to the priests of  
that hapless nation—

Excessere omnes adytis arisque relictis  
Die, quibus imperium steterat.—

AARON HILL.

Who would expect to find these  
lines in a tragedy of this very lan-  
guid author?

Hence let no one say,  
Thus far, no farther shall my passions stray.  
One crime indulg'd, impells us into more,  
And that is fate, that was but choice before.

DOM NOEL D'ARGONNE,

The Carthusian, the author of  
that entertaining book, "*Les Me-  
langes de Literature par Vigneuil  
de Merville*," says, with no less  
strength than truth, in his maxims,  
"With many persons their youth is  
passed in sowing the seeds of the  
vices most suited to their inclina-  
tions: their maturer age is spent in  
ripening and in perfecting those  
vices; and the last period of life  
goes off embittered in gathering the  
bitter fruits of those mischievous  
and poisonous seeds." Dom Noel  
d'Argonne wrote an elegant little  
book upon education, called, *L'Edu-  
cation de M. de Moncade*. Rousseau,

in his *Emile*, seems much indebted  
to him for many hints.

ORLANDO LASSO.

Upon this celebrated musician  
some one wrote this line for an epi-  
taph—

Hic ille Orlandus Lassum, qui recreat or-  
bem.

In this sad tomb Orlando Lasso lies,  
Who the tir'd world with music's charms  
supplies.

Some Frenchmen made the follow-  
ing quibbling epitaph upon him, in  
allusion to the different keys of  
music—

Etant enfant j'ai chanté le dessus  
Adolescent j'ai fait la contre—taille  
Homme parfait, j'ai resonné la taille  
Mais maintenant je suis mis au basus,  
Prie passant que l'esprit soit la-sus.

DES MORETS.

This fanatical French poet, on  
seeing one day the celebrated le  
Mothe le Vayer go into the chapel  
at Versailles, cried out loudly,  
"What business has that fellow in  
a church? he has no religion."—  
"My good friend," replied le Vayer,  
looking stedfastly at him, "I have  
too much religion, I assure you, to  
be of your religion."

## SCRAPIANA.

### NUMBER XI.

"OCCUPATION," says Vol-  
taire, "delivers us from three  
great evils, *ennui*, want, and vice."

What an effect the imagination  
has upon the body! How many per-  
sons become ill, from only thinking  
that they are so! Moliere died mere-  
ly as he was acting the *Malade Im-  
aginaire* in his own comedy. This  
gave rise to the following verses:

Roscus hic situs est tristi Moliens in urna  
Cui genus humorum ludere, lusus erat.  
Cum ludit mortem. Mors indignata jocan-  
tem

Corripit, & minimum fingere scena negat.

The Gallic Roscius' consecrated dust,  
Moliere's remains to this sad urn we trust.  
Moliere, whose matchless mimic powers of  
face

Play'd with each passion of the human race,  
Though life, though manners, own'd his  
matchless sway,  
Yet Death refus'd a rival to obey.  
For as presumptuously he dar'd to feign  
The horrors of the grisly tyrant's reign,  
Vex'd at the magic of his scenic art,  
The indignant monarch realiz'd the part.

Roland, at a great expence, col-  
lected curiosities of all kinds; he  
bought pictures, shells, medals, old  
shoes of Louis IX. and the petticoat  
of Margaret de Valois. He was  
supposed

supposed to have died rich; his heirs, however, when they came to bring all these rarities to the hammer, got very little money for them. May we not say of Roland in an epitaph,

C'y gist Roland le curieux  
Il fût riche, mais mourut gueux.

Here Rolle, the great collector, lies,  
How rich alive, how poor he dies!

A delay of justice very often becomes a great injustice, and defeats its own purposes.

"What a hard thing it is," says some Frenchmen, "that one may not say to a tiresome man in conversation, You fatigue me." Were that but permitted, an end would be soon put to great and impertinent talkers. Dorat used to say to any man who forewarned him, that he would tell him a story; "Upon my honour, Sir, but you shall not;" and run out of the room.

A very thin and feeble man, but an incessant talker, once consulted the present illustrious father of physic in England, and wished to know what was the cause of his complaint. "My good friend, you appear to me to talk too much," was the reply.

Great talkers are in general very small thinkers. They talk very often, if one may so express it, to assure us that they have nothing to say.

The following inscription was put upon the hospital of Vienna for insane persons, erected by the late emperor.

Josephus ubique secundus  
Hic tantum primus  
Ædes Has  
Sibi ac Amicus  
Fundavit.

"There are no persons," says the illustrious Montesquieu, "for whom I entertain so supreme a contempt as for the inferior literati, beaux esprits, and noblemen, without propriety."

"I am a good citizen," says that same great writer, "because I love the government under which I have been born, without ever being afraid or without expecting any favour from it. Its benefits I participate in common with all my countrymen; and I thank heaven that it has had the goodness to infuse that excellent quality of moderation in my heart."

"Un François est toujours un François per tout," says some one. A Frenchman is always a Frenchman in something or other. Even the illustrious Fenelon, in one of the conversations he had with a friend, not long before he died, said, "Si j'aurai l'honneur de voir Dieu, je ne manquerai pas de lui recommander bien l'ame du roi de France (Louis XIV.)." A French painter was one day copying the celebrated picture of the battle of Constantine the Great, in the chambers of the Vatican, he had added a great deal of froth to the mouth of the horse that the emperor is supposed to ride, and had given great fire to the eyes of the animal. Some one asked him how he could so alter the picture of the divine Raphael—"Mon ami," replied he, "il faut animé le froid de ce Raphael."—"My good friend, we must in some degree spirit up the coldness of Raphael." In politics, the same character of the nation has taken place: not satisfied with what they have seen done before them, in that science that depends entirely upon experience, they have, in one of their own phrases, *renchéri sur les autres pays*—"gone beyond what has been done in other places." May we not apply to their national character what Milton has so strongly expressed in one of his sonnets?

—A barbarous noise invades me,  
Of owls and cuckoos, asses, apes, and dogs.  
They bawl for freedom in their senseless mood;  
Licence they mean, when they cry liberty;  
For who loves that, must first be wise and good;

But

But from that mark how far they rove we see,  
For ah! this waste of wealth, and loss of blood!

Dr. Johnson should have been immortal, had he only written this sentence, which should be inserted in the blank page of every young person's Bible—"Life, to be worthy of a rational being, must be always in *progression*. We must always *purpose* to do more and better than in times *past*. The mind is enlarged and elevated by *mere* purposes, tho' they end, as they begin, by airy contemplation. We compare and judge, though we do not practise."

The utility of the science of arithmetic was never better illustrated than by this great man. "Nothing," says he, "amuses more harmlessly than *computation*; and nothing is oftener applicable to real business, and to speculative enquiries. A thousand stories, which the *ignorant* tell and believe, die away at once when the computist takes them in his gripe. Every young person should cultivate in himself a disposition to numerical enquiries: they afford entertainment in solitude by the practice, and reputation in public by the effect."

With respect to the utility and amusement of general knowledge, Dr. Johnson has observed very fully, "All truth is valuable, and all knowledge is pleasing in its first effects, and may be subsequently useful. Of whatever we see, we always wish to know: always congratulate ourselves when we have that, of which we perceive another to be ignorant. A young person should take all opportunities of learning that should offer themselves, however remote the matter may be from common life or common conversation. He should visit the chymist's laboratory, the astronomer's observatory, the manufacturer's workshop. By this activity of attention, he will find in every place diversion and improvement."

To those persons, who complain that the common wants of life do not afford matter for reflection and contemplation, what excellent advice does that great moralist and observer of human life give. "The common course of life is extremely fertile of observation and reflection. Upon the *common* course of life must our thoughts, and our conversation, be in general employed. Our *general* course of life must denominate us wise or foolish, happy or miserable. If it is well regulated, we pass on prosperously and smoothly; as it is neglected, we live in embarrassment, perplexity, and uneasiness."

LINES on a Window at Dumfries, in 1745.

Tender-handed, press a nettle,  
And it stings you for your pains;  
Press it like a man of mettle,  
And it soft as silk remains.

'Tis the same with common natures,  
Use them kindly, they rebel;  
But be rough as nutmeg-graters,  
And the dogs obey you well.

Publius Syrus's sentences are in general very pithy and expressive. What he says of death was, in his time, very apposite.

Mortem timere crudelius est quam mori.  
It is more dreadful than the thing itself,  
To be afraid of death.

Est vita misero longa, felici brevis.

Long to the happy, to the wretched short,  
Life keeps its tenor, reckoned by our feelings.

Fortuna usu dat multa, mancipio nihil  
Levis est Fortuna cito resposuit, quod dedit.  
Fortune gives not, she only lends her favours;  
Fickle, takes back what once she seem'd to give.

He said of Pompey, raised to an extraordinary degree of power by the emergencies of the times—

Nostris miseriis magnus est.

Pompey is great by our calamities.

Gui de Faur de Pibrac was likewise a writer of sentences, which he calls Quatrains. They have been translated

translated into the languages of Europe, and into many of those of the East.

Le sage fils est du pere la joie,  
Ou si tu veux ce sage fils avoir,  
Dresse la jeune au chemin de devoir,  
Mais ton exemple est la plus courte voie.

The wise son is the father's greatest joy;  
Would you then render your favourite boy,  
In duty's paths his earliest youth direct,  
Yet from your own example more expect.

Qui lit beaucoup, & jamais ne medite,  
Semble au celui que mange avidement,

Et de tous mets surcharge tellement,  
Sou estomach, que rien ne lui surfit.

Who many books without reflection reads,  
Resembles him, voraciously who feeds;  
Whose stomach, overloaded with each meat,  
Ne'er makes digestion perfect and complete.

Vouloir ne faut que chose que l'on puisse,  
Et ne nouvant que cela que l'on doit,  
Mesurant l'un & l'autre par le droit,  
Sur l'éternelle moule de la justice.

What's in your power alone to will,  
Your power by right to regulate,  
Must every measure surely fill,  
Of justice's eternal state.

## ACCOUNT OF THE BEAVER.

BY JEREMY BELKNAP, A.M.

THE beaver, (*castor fiber*) is one of the most useful as well as sagacious animals of our wilderness. It is now become scarce in New-Hampshire, but the vestiges of its labours are very numerous.

The beaver is not only an amphibious animal, but it is said to form a connecting link between quadrupeds and fishes. It delights in still water, of which it must have full and undisturbed possession. The depth of the water must be such as that it must have sufficient room to swim under the ice. The male and female, with their young of one year old (called by the Indians *peeps*) form a family which consist generally of six. These inhabit one cell; but when come to the age of two years (*paylems*) they go off and build for themselves.

They sometimes choose a natural pond for the scene of their habitation and amusement; in which case they dig a hole in the earth, near the edge of the pond, and line it with sticks; to this they have a subterraneous passage from the water. Sometimes they reside on the coves or eddies of great rivers, where the water is still; but it is more usual for them to construct a dam, which by stopping the course of a stream, may overflow a piece of ground, and form a pond to their liking. In the choice of a spot for a dam they have

sagacity to judge whether it will confine and raise the water to answer their purpose. They take advantage of wind-fallen trees, of long points of land, of small islands, rocks, and shoals; and they vary the shape of their dam according to these circumstances, making it either circular, direct, or angular; and the best human artist could neither mend its position or figure, nor add to its stability. It is constructed entirely of sticks and earth; the sticks are for the most part placed up and down the stream, seldom across, but always closely interwoven and cemented by mud, brought on their tails, which being broad and flat, answer the purpose of a trowel as their teeth do that of a saw. They have four incisive teeth, two in the forepart of the upper, and two of the under jaw, sharp and curved like a carpenter's gouge; with these they cut off trees and bushes of the softest wood, white maple, white birch, alder, poplar, and willow; with these kinds of wood they construct their dams, and of these they always have a sufficiency sunk under the water to serve them for food in the winter.

With respect to the size of the trees which they fell, and some other circumstances relative to their labours and habits, many marvellous stories have been published. La

Hontan

Hontan says they will cut off a tree "as big as a hoghead." Buffon, and after him Raynal and Goldsmith, speak of their "sharpening stakes, and driving them into the ground." Others have asserted things much more incredible. The beaver is in reality a sagacious, laborious, and patient animal, and makes great use of his teeth in felling many small trees, and cutting them into pieces convenient for his use; but he has no instrument with which to drive them into the ground. The size of the trees which he generally chooses, is from one to ten inches in diameter; these are young trees, tender and sweet for food. Necessity sometimes obliges a number of them jointly to attack a tree of large size. The largest of which I have any certain information is from fifteen to eighteen inches in diameter; but this is rare, and the felling of such a tree must require much labour, since those of but one inch have eight or ten strokes, distinctly marked, and a very good kerf is allowed.

Some accounts mention several hundred beavers assembling and holding a council previously to beginning a dam; but I am assured that a single family, and even a single beaver, when he has left his partners, will go regularly to work either in building or repairing a dam as there may be occasion. I have myself taken sticks newly cut, from a dam, where a solitary beaver was at work. Josselyn tells of a beaver which was domesticated at Boston, and ran freely about the streets, retiring at night to the house of his owner.

The beaver's dam is from six to ten feet thick at the bottom, according to the breadth of the stream or the quantity of water. It slopes but little on the lower, and much on the upper side, and is from two to four feet wide at the top. It is always of such height as will confine a sufficiency of water for their purpose. After it is constructed, they place fods of wild grafs upon it, so

that in the course of a year it becomes swarded over like a portion of meadow. Those parts which are in the shoalest water, near the banks, are so consolidated, that after the middle of the dam is broken, these will remain like natural points of firm earth. On the top of the dam, in the middle, they always leave a sluice or passage of eighteen inches wide, and as many deep; and when the stream is large, they leave two or three, which the hunters call sliding-places. In these they divert themselves by sliding or swimming down the stream. It is not inconvenient for this animal to be long under water; nor is he wet when he leaves it to take the land; his coat is so well oiled that no water adheres to it.

When the dam is built, the house is begun. It is in the form of a hay cock, and of a size proportioned to the number of the family. The walls are two or three feet thick at the bottom, and are formed of the same materials as the dam. The door is not only under water, but below where the water freezes. The lower story is about two feet high, and a floor of sticks, covered with mud, composes the second story. At the same distance a third story is formed, and then the roof is raised in an arched form. It is smooth on the inside, and above the water, always dry and clean. Through each floor there is a communication, and the upper floor is always above the level of the water when at the highest. The outside of the house is rough but tight; and if it ever decays, it is repaired. When the hunters find the houses out of repair, they conclude that the beavers have forsaken the pond.

In the winter it is necessary for them to keep one or more breathing holes in the ice constantly open, near the houses; for which purpose they break the ice every night. It is confidently asserted by the hunters, that all their work is done by night, and that they are never seen in the

day



day, unless it be cloudy and dark. During the winter, they live on the wood which they have previously sunk under the water, and in the summer they are employed in repairing their houses and dams, or gathering their food in the neighbouring woods, to which they travel in narrow, beaten paths.

In these paths, or in the water where the path ends, or in the sliding places of the dam, the hunter sets his steel spring trap, which is previously scented with beavers oil. Sometimes he raises a heap of mud, or peels little sticks, and having scented them, sets them up at the edge of the pond, placing the trap under water, near the mud or sticks. The trap is secured by a chain, or the beaver would draw it after him. He often escapes with the loss of a foot. Sometimes he is shot in the water, or on the land. When a beaver discovers an enemy, he strikes the water with his tail; the noise alarms the whole family, and they are in a moment under water. The best fur is that which is taken in February and March; in the summer, their fur is not good. The way of preserving the skins, is by salting and packing them in a close bundle, with the flesh sides together.

One valuable purpose which the beaver serves, is not mentioned, by any of the writers of natural history, which I have had opportunity to consult; but I shall give it, in the words of a friend, to whom I am indebted for several communications respecting the original and cultivated state of the country. "The beavers, in building their dams, have no other design than that of making a habitation agreeable to the natural bias, with which they are formed; but, I conceive, that Being, by whom the universe is so wisely governed, has a farther design in this little animal, who with unwearied labour builds a dam, which stops the water from pursuing its natural course, and makes it spread over a tract of land from five to

five hundred acres in extent; and most commonly the worst of land, a mere alder swamp or bog, and the larger the tract, the more likely is it to be the worse. By means of the waters continuing on this tract, more than half the year, for many years together, every thing which grew upon it is drowned; all trees, bushes, and shrubs, are killed. In a course of time, the leaves, bark, rotten wood, and other manure, which is washed down, by the rains, from the adjacent high lands, to a great extent, spread over this pond, and subside to the bottom, making it smooth and level.

"It is now that the hunter, ferreting the innocent beaver, is also subservient to the great design of providence; which is, by opening the dam, and destroying the beaver, so that it is not repaired. Of consequence, the water is drained off, and the whole tract, which before was the bottom of a pond, is covered with wild grass, which grows as high as a man's shoulders, and very thick. These meadows doubtless serve to feed great numbers of moose and deer, and are of still greater use to new settlers, who find a mowing field already cleared to their hands; and though the hay is not equally as good as English, yet it not only keeps their cattle alive, but in tolerable order; and without these natural meadows, many settlements could not possibly have been made, at the time they were made. Such as are not fenced, afford the cattle good pastures in the beginning of the year, as the grass shoots very early. It is observed that those meadows which are mowed constantly, produce less at every mowing; but will always hold out, where settlers are industrious, till they have cleared ground enough to raise English hay. I have more than two hundred acres in one body, made by several dams, across one brook, at various distances from each other."

## OF THE STATE OF THE FINE ARTS AT ATHENS.

BY MR. DE PAUW.

[ Continued from Page 182. ]

III. *Schools for Painting in Greece, and the Art of Engraving invented by Varro.*

IT is certain that the most ancient school for painting, of which any positive traces can be found among the Greeks, was established in the Isle of Rhodes, at the time of Anacreon. By reading attentively two odes of that poet, any person must be convinced, that the Rhodians employed melted wax only for mixing their colours. This indeed was a procedure both complicated and difficult: but such has been in general the progress of human knowledge, in developing the greater part of the arts, as well as of the sciences.

The manner of employing the wax was properly a kind of encaustic, which with all their efforts, the moderns have not been able to revive. Count Caylus has confounded the very instruments employed by the Greeks for this purpose: the principal of all was a burning iron, called in their language *Cauterion*; but they sometimes had recourse to the more active heat of burning gall-nuts to force the wax into the ground of the picture; and it was afterwards polished like a mirror.

This method had two very great disadvantages; the colours were never sufficiently blended in the half tints, and the picture, when finished, could only be viewed in one position, because in all others the light was reflected so strongly, that the subject became confused. These inconveniences were compensated by a merit to which no other paintings of those days could pretend; for the encaustic insured a kind of eternity to the piece, and made it sustain, in an astonishing

manner, the attacks of time, during the lapse of many centuries.

Polygnotus, who, in all probability, was educated in the Rhodian school, practised, it is well known, the method of encaustics; and the consistency he communicated to his colours, in the battle of Marathon, enabled them to resist the action of the air for nine hundred years, without receiving any material injury, although exposed in an open portico. In the time of Syneus, this painting tempted the avarice of a Roman pro-consul, who removed it from Athens. Constantinople may be supposed to have been the tomb of this, as well as of many other masterpieces, taken out of Greece to decorate a town, where taste never reigned, either when it was the capital of the Christians, or of the Turks.

Cimon, son of Miltiades, had formed the project of embellishing the interior of Athens, but was prevented by his exile or ostracism. Pericles pursued the same plan, and it was under the patronage of this demagogue that the famous academy for painting, since called the school of Athens, was founded. The characters are not known at this day, which constituted the difference between this and the school of Sicyon the most dangerous of its rivals, and the place indeed where a competition could be dreaded. But it appears that the professors at Sicyon were very rigorous in all that related to design; and when they had produced such a scholar as Apelles, they did not any longer fear the jealousy of the Athenians.

We must suppose, that the ancient critics knew how to distinguish the productions of the different academies, either by the tone of their colouring, or the taste of the design,

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fig. What is generally called the Greek contour, or that line nearly perpendicular, extending from the top of the forehead to the point of the nose in several ancient statues, is not a real character, as some have believed; neither has it been copied after a number of living models. In no country of the universe was nature ever subjected to such geometrical proportions; and therefore the style of this design must have been adopted in some schools, for no other apparent reason than to make the forehead very low, because the women of Athens had decided this to be indispensable in beauty. Thus, says Lucian, they let their hair descend in ringlets to the very top of their eye-brows; so that a small part of the front only is visible in a triangular form.

This supposed decision of the Athenian women, who claimed at the same time an empire over fashion and taste, should have obtained no authority with masters of design. It was no less contrary to nature, than those deformed waists produced by the constant pressure of stays; and they fortunately have never been introduced among either statues or paintings. Such figures, compared by Terence, after Menander, to slender reeds, would spoil any composition; and Linnæus considers them as monstrous varieties of the human race: but in this custom we find nothing more than the same spirit of caprice, which actuates savage nations to render their heads round, flat, or pointed.

It has been pretended that the Greek islands have produced more great painters, than the two continents of Europe and Asia. To prove this assertion, such famous names are cited as Polygnotus of the Isle of Thafus, Timanthes of Samos, Zeuxis of Sicily, Protogenes of Rhodes, and Apelles of the Island of Cos. But all this may have been the effect of what is called chance, without depending on physical causes,

or admitting any just inferences relative to the genius of islanders. Besides, this catalogue of the most celebrated painters of antiquity contains at least one geographical error: for, although Protogenes inhabited a garden in the environs of Rhodes, he was not less a native of Caunus, on the continent of Asia, and some traces of that town still exist under the name of Kaigues in Caria.

Greece, properly called, was a country of very small extent; but including all the Greek towns of Asia, Africa, and Europe, from Marseilles to the extremity of the Euxine Sea, and from Cyrene to the frontiers of Thrace, the scene extends to one half of what was known to the ancients on our globe. It is not surprising that so many free states, when the arts were so generally cultivated, should have produced such numbers of statuary and painters, especially as the study of drawing formed an essential part of their education. The same thing would take place at this day, if republics were as numerous in the world, provided likewise that their artists had as much occupation as those of the Greeks.

The nature of our furniture, and the taste now predominant in decorations, have been fatal to painting; and never were artists of that class less encouraged than at present. The cause of their inaction has not unjustly been imputed to the art of engraving, supposed to have originated with the Greeks. But none of that nation had any right to this invention; it appertained alone to Varro; and Pliny expresses himself very unequivocally, when he calls it *Inventum Varronis*. Engraved plates were first employed by him to stamp the profiles, and principal features of portraits; and afterwards the pencil was necessary to add the shades and suitable colours.

It was a woman born in Cyzicum, but then established in Italy, who possessed the happy talent of colouring such prints with uncommon

taste, as well as truth. Seven hundred likenesses of illustrious men, copied in this manner from ancient busts and statues, were inserted in a Greek work, entitled by Varro *Hebdomades*, or the *Images*.

The necessity of copying so often the same figures inspired the idea of facilitating the operation, and gave rise to this art, until then unknown. Below each portrait some Greek or Latin verses were inserted on the same plate, and to this may be traced the origin of painting with immoveable characters.

So important a discovery, says Pliny, was received with general applause by the learned of every denomination. It was not only easy, by this method, to multiply objects for the gratification of an idle curiosity, but likewise those figures absolutely necessary to render books of science intelligible, such as plans of architecture, and geographical maps. *Agathodemon*, of Alexandria, generally called a mechanician, was really an engraver, who executed, after the manner of Varro, those charts scattered in all the copies of the geography of Ptolemy. Thus, all these details demonstrate more and more, that the ancients had many inventions, which the moderns are accustomed to deny, either from ignorance or envy.

#### IV. *Apographums, or Productions either copied or supposed.*

Many original productions of genius and art could be reckoned among the statues covering the surface of Greece; but the greater part were only imaginations more or less servile.

The Mercury, placed at the entry of the Ceramicus of Athens, had served to cast so many copies, that it became quite shining, from having been so often daubed with oil, in order to facilitate the impression of the moulds.

No obstacles were ever thrown in the way of such operations by those magistrates, called *Agoranomes*, who

had the inspection of the markets and public places. They were not considered as at all injurious to the police; and the commerce of Athens gained considerably by the number of ships, which, according to Philostratus, went loaded with statues from Piræus. Mercuries, executed in this manner, were sold to weak connoisseurs for originals, particularly when the name of some celebrated master, such as Lyhippus, was fraudulently inscribed on the leg or thigh in silver letters.

Polycletus sometimes took copies of his own statues, as appears by the exact similitude of the features, and attitudes of figures taken from the same model; and this was still more observable when they were without drapery.

The most famous apographum of our day is the *Venus of Medicis*. The attitude of this statue, like the works of Polycletus, proves it to be a copy of the *Venus of Gnidus*; and the inscription it bears, is regarded by Mr. Marietti as another forgery. Nothing was more common in ancient times than to make statues with false characters; and the cunning of the Greeks, in such matters, surpassed imagination. Presumptuous and vain men, who, without knowledge, wished to pass for connoisseurs, were easily caught in snares so artfully contrived; and such was the case of the Romans in general, if we except Varro, who really possessed very extensive notions, both in the theory and practice of the fine arts.

With great exactness of proportion, the *Venus of Medicis* is not graceful, and the attitude somewhat confined and insinuates, that, even as a copy, it cannot be considered as the work of a superior artist. Cleomenes, to whom it is ascribed, was an obscure man, whose name has never been cited by any ancient author.

Copies, accurately taken in marble, required an experienced artist; but to counterfeit the Mercury of the Ceramicus, in brass, it was sufficient

cient to understand the art of moulding, without being versed in any of the elements, either of drawing, or of sculpture.

Great knowledge of literature and criticism, as well as of the arts, was necessary to prevent those, who purchased paintings, books, and statues at Athens, from being deceived by the fraudulent imposition of famous names.

In the market, called the *Libraries*, many compilations were found, decorated with such imposing and magnificent titles, that people could not refrain from perusing them. But after having passed the gilded portico, says Pliny, the whole interior of the building appeared not less bare and frightful than the deserts of Arabia. The courtessans of Corinth were not the only people who retailed repentance at a high price; for the customers of the booksellers of Athens seldom failed to regret having read their books, and still more having purchased them. Literary speculations became so very licentious, that spurious works were attributed to celebrated authors, even during their life-time; and Galen mentions whole treatises having been published in his name, of which he had not composed a particle. When such men as physicians interested themselves in this commerce, we may suppose, that the theologists were not idle; and in fact we have still extant an entire catalogue of apocryphal books, published by them in the name of the divinity.

Two famous Apographums exceeded all others ever produced by the painters of Athens: the one was an imitation of the Centaurs of Zeuxis, which Lucian has described very minutely; and the other a copy of the charming *Glycera* of Pausias, which deserved to be placed among the finest paintings of Greece. This picture consisted of no more than the figure of a woman, employed in making crowns, or festoons of flowers. Yet the piece seemed to

border on enchantment; for Pausias possessed the art of creating illusion almost in as high a degree as Apelles. Besides what were properly called apographums, Greece contained many copies of the same subject, executed by the hands of the original artists, without any apparent variation of arrangement. The taking of Troy, painted by Polygnotus at Delphi, bore great resemblance to that in the *Pæcile* of Athens; and it was very easy to discover not only a tone of imitation, but likewise a perfect uniformity of ideas.

It is generally believed, that the Thebans had a law to punish painters, who made little progress in their art. But without laying any stress on this circumstance, hazarded by Ælian, and very improbable in all appearance, no laws existed at Athens to prevent artists from copying each other, and selling the apographums for originals. Solon thought proper to abandon this part of the fine arts to itself, unencumbered by any chains of legislation; but the same indulgence did not extend to those people, called *Dactyloglyphes*, or engravers on metals and precious stones. It was severely prohibited to make any such counterfeits; neither could the impression of seals be kept in the shops where they had been engraved, because many frauds might have resulted from imitating the private signets of citizens.

Travellers, who frequented Greece without having thoroughly studied the arts, were entirely at the discretion of those public conductors, called *mysagogues*. It was they who undertook to instruct strangers in every thing; but their method was less adapted to produce light, than to establish the dominion of darkness. They began their descriptive farce by reading, in a loud voice, the inscription of a monument, and then proceeded with a prolix explanation, abandoning themselves, as the Greeks generally did, to such

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a torrent of words, that Plutarch owns how impossible it was for him to bridle the loquacity of the mystagogues of Delphi. These men should be regarded as the real inventors of all those ridiculous prodigies concerning statues and paintings, which deceived animals, by rendering them sensible to the charms of art, in opposition to their instinct. In no country of the world was impudence

[To be continued.]

#### ON THE BEST METHOD OF PROVIDING FOR THE POOR.

*With preliminary and subsequent Considerations, by the Secretary of the Bath and West of England Society.*

[Continued from Page 186.]

**I**N Doctor Davenant's time (says Lord Kaims) the poor-rates were about 700,000*l.* annually; in the year 1764, they amounted to 2,200,000*l.* in the year 1773, they amounted to 3,000,000*l.* equal to six shillings in the pound land-tax.\*

Now if they have increased in an equal progression since the year 1773, which there is too much reason to apprehend; they must (supposing this calculation to be just) have amounted in the year 1782 to 3,800,000*l.* sterling; and the saving by the plan here proposed will be increased in proportion, that is, to the enormous sum of 2,500,000*l.* and this, even admitting the whole sum now raised for the poor to be absolutely necessary, and that the deficiency of the sums raised by these contributions must be made up, how astonishingly great then will be the advantages to this nation, should the funds alone, as they

in lying carried to greater excess than among the Greeks; and to keep the minds of strangers in constant ecstacy, they attributed even the most trifling productions to the greatest masters. So many statues were pointed out with the pretended names of Phidias, Polyclethus, and Praxiteles, that these sculptors could not have executed them all in two hundred years.

probably will, prove adequate to the ends proposed by them!

Out of this fund every man, who is really incapable of labour, shall have a right to demand six† shillings per week, for the first six months, should his illness last so long, and three shillings per week after that period, until he again becomes capable of labour; every woman should have a right to demand two shillings per week for the first six months, and afterwards one shilling and six-pence per week, until she is again able to work. I would also wish to extend the advantages of this institution, as a matter of right, to those industrious poor persons who are oppressed by large families, to the fatherless, the widow, and the orphan.‡

For I find upon enquiry amongst some of the most industrious of the poor, that it is almost impossible for a man to maintain a wife and three children, under nine years of age, upon

\* Sketches of the History of Man. Sketch 10.

† I am inclined to believe that these proportions are not the best which may be adopted; but they are such as the people have chosen for themselves, and perhaps it might not be safe to alter them, at least for the present.

‡ For there is no reason why the terrors of poverty should damp the instinctive parental joy, which ever accompanies the birth of a helpless innocent; why hunger should aggravate the affliction of the widow; or why contempt and indigence should necessarily embitter the irreparable loss of affectionate parents: no, let us mitigate these unavoidable calamities, as far as lies in our power, by a frugal, an unhumiliating, and a determinate provision.



upon six shillings per week, the wife's time being so much taken up in the necessary duties of her family, that she can, under such circumstances, earn nothing; with two children under that age they acknowledge they can do tolerably well, and after they are nine years of age they can, if in health, nearly earn their own maintenance; every common labourer or manufacturer then, earning no more than six shillings per week, having three children under nine years of age, shall receive from the fund one shilling and six-pence per week until the eldest of those children shall attain the age of nine years, or until one of them shall happen to die; and if any one or more of his children shall happen to be idiotic, insane, or any ways so far disabled either in body or mind, as to be utterly incapable of labour, each of them shall be considered as if still under the age of nine years, and paid for accordingly. If a mother should be left a widow with three children, under seven years of age, she shall receive from the fund five shillings, if with two children three shillings, and if with one child one shilling and six-pence per week; if with more than three under that age, one shilling per week for each above that number, it being considered that all her time is taken up by three, and allowance made for it, but that she is capable of looking after and taking care of a greater number, which however will very rarely happen.

Orphans will be attended with somewhat more difficulty; the same proportions, however, should be allotted from the fund for their maintenance, and some receptacle provided for them, where they may be taught to get their own living by the age of nine years; and widows,

without children, under the age of 65, may, when in health, be considered as able to get their own subsistence.

Providing thus early against the possibility of necessary poverty, will be attended with the most happy effects (for the positive advantages of this plan, however great, I consider as scarcely equal to the negative ones), cherish that spirit of independency which is natural to the human mind, and in a short time there will be found scarcely a really poor person in his majesty's dominions.\*

It is with the poor man as it is with the tradesman; the latter, as long as the balance at the year's end appears in his favour, and he adds something annually to his capital stock, continues unremittently to exert himself to the utmost of his abilities; but if, notwithstanding his exertions, the balance of trade goes against him, and he finds his capital annually decreasing, he begins at first to look into his accounts with reluctance, then neglects them altogether, and at length seeks relief in continual dissipation.

So it is with the poor man, as long as he continues in perfect health, his earnings are generally sufficient to procure him a comfortable subsistence; and if he is in debt to no one on Saturday night, he lays himself down contented. Let us suppose him now afflicted with a few days illness, that his credit is good, and he runs a little in debt; as soon as he recovers, he makes some efforts to pay it, but before he can accomplish this, a second illness overtakes himself, his wife, or his family, his debt of necessity increases, and at length arrives to such a height, that he sees it is impossible, by any exertions he can make, to recover himself; he feels hurt at the idea, his spirit

\* The truth of this idea may be inferred from hence, that upon the most strict enquiry I do not find more than one or two instances where any member of the association became chargeable to the parish; and these were under the pressure of very large families, labouring under general sickness, both which circumstances would by this scheme be provided against,

spirit is broken, and if no one from charity, or good policy, steps in to relieve him from his present dilemma, his desire of independency is lost FOR EVER; he applies to the overseers for relief, and having once surmounted the pride natural to man, and been beholden (as they call it) to the parish, he is determined to get as much from it as he can; and thus, by an aggregation of such cases, the poor's rate is extended beyond all bounds. Such is the progress of the human mind, in the lower orders of society, as I have too frequently had occasion to observe.

Let us now turn our eyes to the scheme here proposed, the easy practicability of which may be inferred from the general tendency of the people, both male and female, to run into such associations, under many difficulties, in every part of the kingdom, and its probable effects we have traced at some length before. It is true these associations are, at present, chiefly composed of the more industrious part of the people, the lower class of tradesmen; but we have made ample allowance, as I think, for the most considerable difficulties which can possibly arise, even amongst the most necessitous part of the community. Could such a scheme be carried into execution, many advantages would arise to the kingdom, independent of the increase of population, the relief it would afford to the landed interest, and stability it would give to public credit. By it the youthful, the vigorous, and the active, would insensibly become the supporters of the aged, the infirm, and the diseased; the single man, finding that he must contribute to the support of the married man's children, would find it his interest early to obey the dictates of nature, and marry likewise, from which he would no longer be deterred, by the fear that himself and his offspring might become beggars.

Equally and enviably secured against the inconveniencies of poverty or riches, supporting and sup-

ported in turn by his fellow-parishioners, the peasant would pass his days, the father of a numerous and vigorous offspring, in ease, tranquillity, and peace. As all would be interested in the stability of the fund, each individual would become the overseer of his neighbour; and as all would be provided for upon an equal footing, no discontent could arise on account of partiality; whilst every one being secure of a comfortable and *determinate* subsistence, there could be no temptations to vice from necessity, and it is to be hoped fewer than at present from example.

The indolent man, not contributing his quota, would be equally obnoxious to the squire and to the peasant; and as from his deficiency he would be immediately detected, so his idleness should inevitably meet its proper antidotes, confinement, and labour.

By proper certificates from one association to another, the detrimental, expensive, and often inhuman removal of paupers, generally under a state of disease, and frequently in the agonies of death! would be rendered unnecessary; the amiable longings of those individuals (who have gained settlements at a distance) to pass the evening of their days in their native place, with their earliest friends, relations, and acquaintance, might be safely gratified; the litigations between parishes concerning the settlements of paupers would be heard of no more, the petty shufflings and underhand tricks to evade or diminish the poor-rates, so common at present, would be annihilated, and every human being, without fear or molestation, would be enabled to seek his subsistence wherever his genius, his inclination, or his interest, might lead him; but, above all, the sum of human happiness would be considerably augmented, by the comfort which every man of moderate desires and independent principles must feel, when he recollects, that whatever accident

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can befall him, to deprive him of the power of getting his subsistence, he is certain of a comfortable maintenance, without any disgrace to himself, or any obligation to others. "In the days of my prosperity (says he to the treasurer of the fund) I deposited a sum of money in your hands to support me when I should fall under the pressure of adversity; that period is now arrived, I demand therefore on your part the fulfilment of the contract; pay me the sum I stipulated to receive."

Such are the advantages which seem naturally to arise from the plan I have ventured to propose; but perhaps difficulties may occur in the execution, which I, in my zeal, may have overlooked, or which cannot at present be foreseen; and which may render the scheme in some measure abortive. These difficulties, so far as they appeared, it was my intention to have pointed out in this place, together with such regulations as seemed to me, from a considerable attention to this pleasing subject, most likely to obviate them; but I could not render them so perfect as to satisfy my own mind, in time for the present publication, which I was unwilling any longer to delay, from an apprehension that a bill would be brought into the House of Commons by Mr. Gilbert soon after the Christmas recess, which appeared to me less adequate to the end proposed. There is a principle in the human mind, which renders it impatient of controul; mankind in general may be induced almost to any thing; but he who attempts to compel them, will find it an Herculean labour.

By strict discipline and the terrors of martial law, a body of men may be kept in a state of mechanical subjection; but if the commanding of-

ficer does not convince them that he has their interest at heart, and that he harrasles them no more than the service necessarily requires, these men will desert him at his utmost need. To secure their obedience, he must gain their affection; persuade them they are of consequence, and they become enthusiasts in your cause; in like manner convince the multitude that they can and ought to provide for themselves, and *they will provide for themselves.*

I shall not lose sight of this pleasing object,\* but if the foregoing outlines meets the public approbation, or seems likely to be adopted by the legislature, I shall in due time throw out such hints as appear to me likely to render it successful; together with some observations (as a consequence of the former) on a probable mode of paying off fifty millions of the national debt, in the course of twenty years, without levying any tax which can be felt as a fresh burthen by the people.

So far this ingenious and valuable author.

The picture he has drawn of the resources to be found by a provident management of the poor, is pleasing in a high degree. His remarks on human nature, in connection with his facts, are solid and judicious. His scheme for a general contribution monthly, in aid of such a fund as he contends for, has the most flattering appearance of success. Happy would it be for this country, were it voluntarily reduced to trial, in every town or district, where the experiment is most easy; from such experiments more real knowledge would be gained, more general certainty would be established, than from a thousand theoretical speculations.

[*To be continued.*]

\* Since writing the above, I have read some Enquiries concerning the Poor, made with equal judgement and humanity, by John M<sup>r</sup> Farlin, D. D. of Edinburgh; which are well worthy the attention of the public.

OF THE MANNERS, CUSTOMS, &c. OF THE INHABITANTS  
OF MOROCCO.

BY WILLIAM LEMPRIERE.

[ *Continued from Page 212.* ]

**P**ERSONAL cleanliness has been pointed out by modern philosophers as one of those circumstances which serve to mark and determine the civilization of a people. It was in vain that Mahomet enjoined the frequency of ablution as a religious duty to the Moors. Their dress which should be white, is but seldom washed, and their whole appearance evinces that they perform this branch of their religious ceremonies in but a slovenly manner. With this degree of negligence as to their persons, we may be justly surprized to find united a most scrupulous nicety in their habitations and apartments. They enter their chambers barefooted, and cannot bear the slightest degree of contamination near the place where they are seated. This delicacy again is much confined to the insides of their houses. The streets receive the whole of their rubbish and filth, and by these means the ground is so raised in most parts of the city of Morocco, that the new buildings always stand considerably higher than the old.

The persons of the Moorish men are so disguised by their dress, that it is impossible to acquire any good idea of their form or proportion. In height they are commonly above the middle size, and they are rather meagre than fat. Their complexions in general are fallow in the northern parts of the empire, but are darker in proportion to their situation towards the south. Their features have universally a great sameness. Their eyes are black and full, they have an aquiline nose, and in general a good set of teeth.

The dress of the men consists of a short linen shirt, with large and loose sleeves hanging half-way down to the ground. A pair of loose

linen drawers, reaching almost to the ankle; over which they wear another loose pair, made of woollen cloth. Over the shirt they wear two or three woollen cloth waistcoats of different colours, and of European manufacture; these garments are made full as loose as our great coats; they are connected before by very small buttons, and are fastened tight round the waist by a silk belt. Over these waistcoats they throw a velvet cord, which crosses the right shoulder, and suspends on the left side a curved dagger or knife, sheathed in a brass scabbard. This is the dress the Moors wear when in their houses; but when they go abroad they cover it with the Haick, a part of dress which has been already noticed. It is thrown over the whole of their other cloathing in a careless but easy manner, something similar to the Scotch plaid. When the weather is wet or cold, instead of the Haick, the Moors substitute the Sulam; which is a large hooded cloak, reaching to the heels, all of one piece, and made of blue or white woollen cloth of European manufacture, without seams, close before, and ornamented with silk fringes at the extremities, on the breast, and the ends of the hood terminating with a silk tassel. The latter part of the dress is fixed on the head by means of a strong cord of camel's hair; and among the common people it often supplies the place of a cap or turban.

Those Moors who have performed a pilgrimage to Mecca are entitled to wear a turban, and are named Ell-Hatch. They are always treated with peculiar respect. Even those beasts of burthen indeed which have performed this journey are held in great

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great veneration, and upon their return are exempted from labour. The other class of Moors wear only plain red caps. The Moors in general shave their heads close, leaving on the upper part a single lock, and wear their beards long. They use no stockings or shoes, but substitute in the place of the latter yellow slippers. They are very fond of beads, of which the better order always carry a rosary in their hands; but they use them more as a matter of amusement than for any religious purpose. Many also wear plain gold rings on their fingers; and those whose circumstances will allow them to go to that expence, possess likewise watches, which, like the rosary, they consider rather as an ornament than as an article from which any great utility can be derived. Very few, in fact, are properly acquainted with their use.

This may serve to give some idea of the dress of the rich; but among the poorer class of people some wear the linen drawers, shirt, and one woollen waistcoat, and over it the Haick; and others have merely a coarse woollen frock, belted round the waist, and covered with the Haick.

The houses in most of the towns in this empire appear at a little distance like vaulted tombs in a churchyard; and the entrance into the best of them has but a mean appearance. They are of a square form, their apartments are seldom built higher than the ground floor, and their outer walls are universally white-washed, which in the streets, and particularly when the sun is out, produce a very unpleasant sensation to the eyes. All these circumstances, united to the want of windows, the filthiness and irregularity of the streets, the dirty appearance and rude behaviour of the inhabitants, and their total ignorance of every art and science, leaves at first sight an unfavourable impression on the mind of the traveller, which perhaps while he continues in the

country he can never do away. As the roofs of the houses are all terraces, they serve as *verandos*, where the Moorish women commonly sit for the benefit of the air, and in some places it is possible to pass nearly over the whole town, without having occasion to descend into the street.

As the best apartments are all backwards, a stable, or perhaps something worse, is the place to which visitors are first introduced. Upon entering the house the stranger is rather detained in this place, or in the street, till all the women are dispatched out of the way; he is then allowed to enter a square court, into which four narrow and long rooms open by means of large folding doors, which, as they have no windows, serve likewise to introduce light into the apartments. The court has generally in its center a fountain, and if it is the house of a Moor of property, it is floored with blue and white chequered tiling. The doors are usually painted of various colours in a chequered form, and the upper parts of them are frequently ornamented with very curious carved work.—None of the chambers have fire-places, and their victuals are always dressed in the court-yard, in an earthen stove, heated with charcoal.

When the visitor enters the room where he is received by the master of the house, he finds him sitting cross-legged and bare-footed on a mattress, covered with fine white linen, and placed on the floor, or else on a common mat. This, with a narrow piece of carpeting, is in general the only furniture he will meet with in Moorish houses; though they are not destitute of other ornaments. In some, for instance, he will find the walls decorated with looking-glasses of different sizes. In others, watches and clocks in glass cases; and in some the apartments are hung with skins of lions or tigers, or adorned



with a display of muskets and sabres. In the houses of those who live in the very first style, an European mahogany bedstead, with one or two mattresses, covered with fine white linen, is sometimes placed at each end of the room. These, however, are only considered as ornaments, as the Moors always sleep on a mattress, or a mat placed upon the floor, and covered only with their Haick, or perhaps a quilt.

As the law of Mahomet strictly proscribes the use of pictures of every description, this delightful species of ornament finds no place in the houses of the Moors. I was however, acquainted with a Moor at Morocco, who used to exhibit a raree-show to his friends and acquaintance, all of whom appeared to express infinite surprize and admiration at his exhibition. This, indeed, was not the only instance in which he was guilty of violating the Mahometan law. He scrupled not to drink very freely his bottle of port or claret, which as it was manufactured by Christians, was from that circumstance an aggravated offence. He employed me to procure for him from Mogodore three dozen of claret, which appeared to administer to him infinite comfort and satisfaction. This affection indeed for the productions of Europe made him perhaps more than usually favourable to its natives. However this may be, he was the only man who shewed me much attention during my residence at Morocco. He repeatedly took me to his house, and made me little presents of various kinds, which at that place proved very acceptable.

When a Moor receives his guests he never rises from his seat, but shakes hands, enquires after their health, and desires them to sit down, either on a carpet or a cushion placed on the floor for that purpose. Whatever be the time of day, tea is then brought in on a tea-board with short feet. This is the highest compliment that can be offered by a

Moor; for tea is a very expensive and scarce article in Barbary, and is only drank by the rich and luxurious. Their manner of preparing it is by putting some green tea, a small quantity of tansy, the same portion of mint, and a large portion of sugar (for the Moors drink their tea very sweet) into the tea-pot at the same time, and filling it up with boiling water. When these articles are infused a proper time, the fluid is then poured into remarkably small cups of the best Indian china, the smaller the more genteel, without any milk, and, accompanied with some cakes or sweetmeats, it is handed round to the company. From the great esteem in which this beverage is held by the Moors, it is generally drank by very small and slow sips, that its flavour may be the longer enjoyed; and as they usually drink a considerable quantity whenever it is introduced, this entertainment is seldom finished in less time than two hours.

The other luxuries of the Moors are snuff, of which they are uncommonly fond, and smoking tobacco, for which the greater part use wooden pipes about four feet in length, with an earthen bowl; but the princes or emperor generally have the bowls made of solid gold. Instead of the indulgence of opium, which, from the heavy duty imposed upon that article by the emperor is too expensive to be used by the Moors, they substitute the Achicha, a species of flax. This they powder and infuse in water in small quantities. The Moors assert, that it produces agreeable ideas, but own that when it is taken to excess it most powerfully intoxicates. In order to produce this effect, they likewise mix with their tobacco an herb, named in this country khaf, which my smoking occasions all the inebriating effects of the Achicha. The use of spirits as well as wine is strictly forbidden by the Koran; there are, however, very few among the Moors who do not joyfully em-

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brace every private opportunity of drinking both to excess.

With respect to the hours for eating, the people of this country are remarkably regular. Very soon after day-break they take their breakfast, which is generally a composition of flour and water boiled thin, together with an herb which gives it a yellow tinge. The male part of the family eat in one apartment, and the female in another. The children are not permitted to eat with their parents, but take their meals afterwards with the servants; indeed in most other respects they are treated exactly as servants or slaves by their parents. The mess is put into an earthen bowl, and brought in upon a round wooden tray. It is placed in the center of the guests, who sit cross-legged either on a mat or on the floor, and who form a circle for the purpose. Having previously washed themselves, a ceremony always performed before and after meals, each person with his spoon attacks vigorously the bowl, while they diversify the entertainment by eating with it fruit or bread. At twelve o'clock they dine, performing the same ceremonies as at breakfast. For dinner, from the emperor down to the peasant, their dish is universally Cuscofoo, the mode of preparing which has been already described. I believe I have intimated more than once that neither chairs, tables, knives, or forks, are made use of in this country. The dish is therefore brought in upon a round tray and placed upon the floor, round which the family sit as at breakfast, and with their fingers commit a violent assault on its contents; they are at the same time, however, attended by a slave or domestic, who presents them with water and a towel occasionally to wash their hands. From the want of the simple and convenient invention of knives and forks, it is not uncommon in this country to see three or four people pulling to

pieces the same piece of meat, and afterwards with their fingers stirring up the paste or Cuscofoo, of which they often take a whole handful at once into their mouth. Their manner of eating indeed was to me so disgusting, that though Cuscofoo is in reality a very good dish, yet it required some time to get rid of my prejudice so far as to be induced to relish it. At sun-set they sup upon the same dish, and indeed supper is their principal meal.

Such is the general mode of living among the principal people in towns. There are considerable multitudes, however, who do not fare so well, but are obliged to content themselves with a little bread and fruit instead of animal food, and to sleep in the open streets. This kind of existence seems ill calculated to endure even in an inactive state; far more severe must it therefore be to those who exercise the laborious employment of couriers in this country, who travel on foot a journey of three or four hundred miles, at the rate of between thirty and forty miles a day, without taking any other nourishment than a little bread, a few figs, and some water, and who have no better shelter at night than a tree. It is wonderful with what alacrity and perseverance these people perform the most fatiguing journeys at all seasons of the year. There is a regular company of them in every town, who are ready to be dispatched at a moment's warning to any part of the country their employers may have occasion to send them. They constitute in this empire the only mode of conveyance for all public and private dispatches; and as they are well known in the place to which they belong, they are very punctual in delivering every thing that is put into their hands. From their steady pace in travelling, at the rate of about four miles an hour, and from their being able to pass over parts which from the mountainous state of the country, and from the want of

of good roads, persons on horseback would find inaccessible, they are indeed by far the most expeditious messengers that could be employed. As a proof of the amazing exertions of which they are capable, I need

only mention, that there have been repeated instances of a courier proceeding from Morocco to Tangier, which is a journey of about three hundred and thirty miles, in fix days.

[ *To be continued.* ]

## ACCOUNT OF THE NEW AMERICAN SETTLEMENT OF KENTUCKY.

BY CAPTAIN GEORGE IMLAY.

[ *Continued from Page 216.* ]

**WE** will now return to Kentucky, which is the key-stone of the settlements upon the waters of the Mississippi. The years 1783 and 1784 brought out vast numbers of emigrants from all parts of America; particularly the latter year, when it was supposed that in Kentucky alone, not less than 12,000 souls became settlers: several Europeans from France, England, and Ireland were among the number. The Indians gave us a respite, and there seemed to be nothing wanting to make us the happiest people upon earth.

In 1782 the state of Virginia had given us a general court, with judges and an attorney-general, to manage all legal affairs respecting the district, without the trouble and expence of travelling to Richmond, which is distant between five and six hundred miles, two hundred of which were through an uninhabited wilderness. In 1783, 1784, and 1785, great part of the country was surveyed and patented, and the people in the interior settlements pursued their business in as much quiet and safety as they could have done in any part of Europe. Court-houses were built in different counties, and roads were opened for carriages, which seven years before had not been seen in the country. The only roads hitherto were for single horses.

In 1785 the district had grown so considerable from the great num-

ber of emigrants which had arrived, and that respectability which it had acquired produced a disposition in the inhabitants to become an independent state, and to be admitted as another link in the great federal chain. A convention was immediately formed by sending deputies from the different counties, who met at our then metropolis, Danville, for the purpose of taking the matter into consideration; when it was determined, after some debating, to petition Virginia for that purpose. An act had already passed that State, authorising any district of country over the mountains to separate whenever a majority of the inhabitants should wish it: but in this instance it was urged, by those who were not friendly to the separation, that it was not the wish of the majority of the inhabitants of Kentucky to become independent. In fact, many gentlemen holding considerable tracts of land in the district, who were not residents, thought our separation would be premature, particularly as we had courts of justice, whose jurisdiction was distinct from that of Virginia, and the only solid complaint (which, indeed, was a serious one) was the distance to which we must send our representatives, and our local situation requiring in some instances a legislation, which the majority of the Assembly of the State would not be competent to judge of. However, this business was procrastinated;

for

for finding, though we might separate whenever we chose, yet that it was optional with the legislature of Virginia to recommend us to be taken into the federal government (which they were not likely to do, and which it was certain could not be done without), we were content to remain as we were for that time.

The federal government in the course of this year undertook to lay off the country west of the Ohio, in such manner as would answer the purpose of selling the land, and settling the country. Peace had been made the preceding year at Fort M'Intosh, between the United States and the Indians, in which the country upon the Muskingum, Scioto, and the Great and Little Miami rivers, had been given up by the Indians as a consideration for former massacres, and as necessary to produce permanent tranquillity; they finding the United States, by cession from Great Britain, had a right to all the country within the limits described in the treaty of 1783, and that it would be in vain for them to remonstrate against their peopling it, particularly as it was to Great Britain they were to look to for restitution, who had abandoned them when allies, and sold their country without even consulting them. But when the surveyors began to act, the Indians discovered immediate and hostile signs of disapprobation, some massacres were committed, and the business was put off until the following spring.

Congress as yet had taken no decided measures as to the organization of this country, or the mode of parcelling it out, and disposing of it; the discontinuance of the late war was still recent, and the multifarious objects which presented themselves to an infant government, not recovered from the shocks of a doubtful credit, together with the habitual idleness which the profession of arms produces, threw an embarrassment over all their proceedings. It was in this dilemma

that they recommended the meeting of a convention, to be composed of deputies from the different States, to assemble in Philadelphia in May, 1787, to take into their consideration the nature and defects of the federal government as it then existed. In this examination they found that the old government wanted efficiency, and the total absence of union between the different States, from local laws and customs, was productive of delay, and a variety of obstructions, tending to counteract the concord of confederation.

It was under these considerations that the present federal government arose. It has established one great and important principle for the benefit of mankind, and the extension of civilization, which is, that a power may so exist in a government, as to admit of alteration or change, without danger to the tranquillity of the State; by government recommending to the constituent powers of that State, the deputing men to enquire into the radical defects of their constitution, and making such alterations as the improved wisdom of experience may find necessary. It is thus in the progression of things that governments will arrive at perfection.

I must beg that you will excuse this digression, as it was necessary to account for the delay in proceeding to the settlement of the country west of the Ohio. This business took up the greater part of 1787, so that it was a year or more before much was done. In the meantime the Indians continued to increase their depredations, under a belief, that if once the Whites were suffered to establish themselves on their side of the Ohio, there would be no end to their incroachments until they became extirpated. In this opinion they were not a little encouraged by the English traders at Detroit and Niagara, who, from an avarice in human nature hard to be accounted for (but as it degenerates under bad laws and worse morals), seek, in murder

murder and bloodshed, for the sale of a few extra pounds of gunpowder and lead. However some land had been surveyed in 1786 and 1787, and in the latter year a settlement was formed upon the Muskingum, which may be looked upon as the commencement of the American settlements upon the western side of the Ohio. In 1788 and 1789 some farther surveying was done; but little since has been transacted in those parts, except wars between the Indians and settlers. Yet it is to be hoped that the decided measures taken by the United States will secure peace, which cannot fail to promote prosperity.

Nature in her pride has given to the regions of this fair river a fertility so astonishing, that to believe it ocular demonstration becomes necessary. During these times of barbarous war and massacre, the people of Kentucky and Cumberland, secured by their numbers and strength, except in their outermost plantations, enjoyed perfect security. The former continued to keep in view the object of her independence, and from the respectable figure she has made in the administration of her affairs, it is at length agreed, that she is to be admitted into the federal union in June 1792.

In casting your eyes over the map of America, you will discover that its western (or middle) country is divided from the Atlantic country by a chain of mountains which rise in the remote parts of the States of New York and New Jersey, and run a south-westerly course, until they are lost (as I observed before) in the flat lands of West Florida. The western country is those parts which are watered by the streams running into the Mississippi.

It is about fifty miles over the Allegany mountain, crossing by the rout which General Braddock took from Fort Cumberland near the Potowmac, at the descent into the country of Redstone on the Monongahala, the southern branch of the

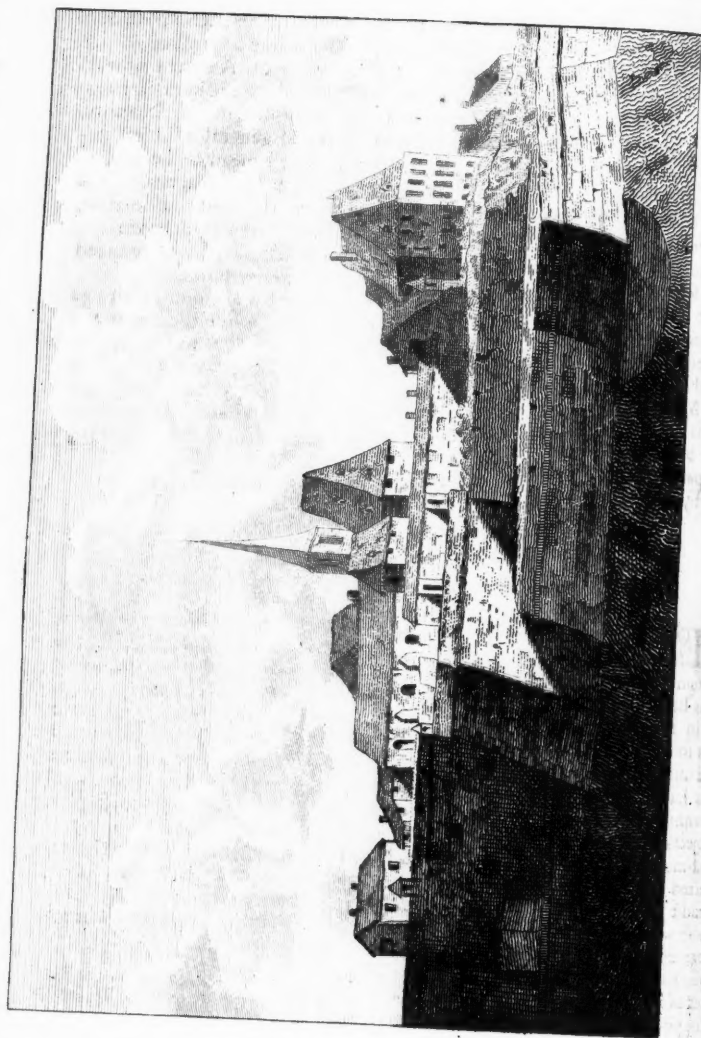
Ohio. This river rises in the same mountain considerably to the southward, runs nearly parallel with it, the opposite way, upwards of one hundred miles, and is navigable for boats nearly to its source; the whole of this country beyond the mountain is extremely fertile, well watered, and abounding with all kinds of timber calculated for building houses, boats, cabinet work, &c. &c. The sugar maple tree is intermixed in great quantities. From the foot of the mountain it is about fourteen miles to Redstone Old Fort, which is on the banks of the Monongahala, and the usual place of embarkation of people coming down the Ohio, who travel Braddock's road; from thence to Pittsburg is about fifty miles by water. Large tracts of flat land lay all along upon the banks of this river from the Old Fort to Pittsburg, which are capable of being made into extensive and luxuriant meadow ground.

This country is populous, it being the oldest settlement, and made immediately after taking Fort du Quetne. The Yohogania empties itself into the Monongahala about sixteen miles above its junction with the Allegany river: the country on this river is more uneven, but in the vallies the soil is extremely rich. Near to Pittsburg the country is well peopled, and there as well as in Redstone, all the comforts of life are in the greatest abundance. Flour is manufactured in as good a style as any part of America; and butter, cheese, bacon, and every kind of provision can be had in the greatest quantity. This whole country abounds in coal, which lies almost upon the surface of the ground: the hills opposite Pittsburg upon the banks of the Monongahala, which are at least three hundred feet high, appear to be one solid body of this mineral.

This must become in time the most valuable grazing country in all America from the fertility of its soil, its capability of being formed  
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into extensive meadows, and its proximity to the mountains which attract the clouds, and produce that moisture so necessary to grass;—besides which, its situation is about three hundred miles from Philadelphia, about two hundred and forty from Baltimore, and about two hundred and twenty from the federal city on the Potowmac, a distance which is too great to carry by land the bulky articles of husbandry; but to which cattle may be driven with the greatest ease.

This country has derived no inconsiderable advantage from the settlement of Kentucky, and the other settlements that are making on the Ohio and Mississippi, the great road of migrating from the northern states lying through it; and indeed it is most convenient, both from Maryland and Virginia, at all seasons of the year, provided that there be any thing bulky to carry, the passage being for the greatest part by water, and the Potowmac

navigable, a few places excepted, to Fort Cumberland. From Fort Cumberland it is about sixty miles land carriage to Redstone Old Fort; but so friendly has nature been to this country, though it is without seas, yet the rivers run in such directions that there is scarce any place in all the back parts of America where art may not reduce the land carriage to a very small distance. I cannot speak upon so general a subject definitively; but I mean to be understood within fifteen leagues. It is asserted from the best authorities, that the land carriage between the Potowmac and Ohio may be reduced to less than twenty miles.

Such is the progression of things in this country, while there was apparently no market for its superfluous productions, that every article has sold extremely well, in consequence of the number of emigrants who have been continually passing down the Ohio.

[To be continued.]

## ACCOUNT OF MONTMEDY.

WITH A VIEW OF THE SAME.

**M**ONTMEDY is a small fortified town, situated in French Luxemburg, upon the river Chier. This little spot will be ever renowned in the history of Europe, as it was to this town that the excellent and unfortunate Louis the Sixteenth was hastening to escape from the tyranny and oppression of his own subjects, when he was seized by the post-master of Varennes, and conducted in mock-triumph to Paris, amidst the hootings and hisses of those who ought in him to have recognized one of those few monarchs who have been friendly to the liberties of mankind. It is said, that by stopping to take some refreshment, this unfortunate prince gave an opportunity to his faithless subjects to

seize upon him. The fate of kings and of kingdoms depend upon the smallest and the most trifling circumstances. A hot dish, perhaps, gave occasion to the infamous murder and massacre of Louis. Le Tellier said of our James the Second, when he saw him going to chapel at Versailles, "There goes a king, who has lost his three kingdoms for a mass." Of another sovereign it might, perhaps, be said with as much point, and perhaps with as much truth, "He has lost thirteen provinces for a pound of tea."

Vides quam fragili in loco  
Starent superbi. SENECA.

Alas! on what a weak and trifling base  
Stand kings and kingdoms!

## ESSAY XIV.—ON THE PROGRESS OF NAVIGATION.

IN 1556, the Company sent out a pinnace under command of Stephen Burrough, or Burrow, who had been, with Richard Chancellor, in the capacity of master, in his first voyage in the year 1553. This vessel, merely destined for discoveries, was named the Searchthrift. At their departure the governor of the Company, Sebastian Cabot, paid them a visit, and is called, in the relation published of the voyages, *the good old gentleman*. This seems to be a very evident proof that this Sebastian Cabot is the same with him who had discovered Newfoundland, and who, if at that time he was 22 years old, at this latter period must have been 81. Burrough went to the coast of Norway, saw Lafot and the North Cape, which latter he had named thus on his first voyage in the year 1553, and at length came to Cola. From thence he went, in company with some small Russian vessels, or lodjes, as far as Kanyin-Nofs, or Kandanofs. Immediately after we are past the cape of this island, we find the east, north-east, and north winds, prevail more and more. After this he arrived at 30 leagues E. N. E. from thence, at the harbour of Morschiowez (Morzowets) in 68 deg. 20 min. N. lat. From thence he sailed twenty-five miles to the eastward, and at the distance of eight leagues in the N. by W. found the island of Colgoive (Kolgow astrow). After this he came to Swetinoz (Swjatoi Nofs), from whence he soon arrived in the dangerous mouth of the Petschora. The whole land here consisted of low sandy hills. At length he reached Nova Zembla (Newland) and the islands of Waigats. But Burrough, finding it impossible to advance any farther on account of the north-easterly winds, and the great quantity of ice, and moreover the nights beginning already, on

the 22d of August, to be very dark, determined to return, and to spend the winter in Colmogori; though the Russians said much to him in favour of the mouth of the river Ob, and concerning the great quantities of morfes, (or sea-horses), to be met with there. In Nova Zembla they saw not a human being, but caught a great number of birds, and saw some white foxes and white bears. On the main land were the Samojedes, a heathen nation, who, living in the neighbourhood of the river Petschora, were even at that early period subject to Russia, and were tolerably peaceable and friendly; but those of this nation, who lived on the river Ob, were of a hostile, cruel, and ferocious disposition. Having wintered in Russia, he returned to England in the year 1557, and was afterwards made controller of the king's navy.

Anno 1558, Anthony Jenkinson sailed for Muscovy with four ships under his command: he left his ships, and travelled by land to Mosco, where having been nobly entertained by the Czar, he obtained his pass, and continued his journey through Muscovy across the kingdoms of Casan and Astracan, where shipping himself on the river Volga he sailed down into the Caspian Sea, having travelled by land about six hundred leagues in the Czar's dominions from Mosco. On the Caspian Sea he spent twenty-seven days, after which landing, he proceeded five days journey by land among a sort of wild Tartars, with a caravan of one thousand camels; then twenty days more through a desert, suffering much thro' hunger and thirst. This brought him again to another part of the Caspian Sea, where formerly the river Oxus fell into it, which now, he says, runs into another river not far from thence, called Ardock, which runs towards the north and under ground  
above

above five hundred miles, after which it rises again, and unburdens itself in the lake of Kitay. Hence he continued his discovery amidst those countries of Tartars to Boghar in Bactria, whence he returned to Mosco.

In 1561, 1562, and 1566, voyages were undertaken to Africa by Rutter, Baker, and Carlet, journals of whose voyages are preserved, but in which no discoveries were made; and Capt. Fenner made a voyage to the Cape de Verde islands in the latter year, in which nothing particular occurred.

In 1562, the French admiral Chastillon fitted out two of the king's ships under the command of Capt. John Ribault, who sailed with them on the 18th of February, and two months after arrived on the coast of Florida, where he landed at Cape François, in about 30 degrees of latitude, but made no stay. Running hence to the northward, he came into the river of May, where he was friendly entertained by the Indians, who presented him fish, Indian wheat, curious baskets, and skins. He proceeded still northward to the river of Port Royal, about which he saw turkey-cocks, partridges, and several other sorts of birds and wild beasts. The mouth of the river is three leagues over, and he sailed twelve leagues up it, where landing, the natives presented him Chamois skins, fine baskets, and some pearls; and here he erected a pillar with the arms of France. Having taken a view of all the shores of this river, he built a fort here, sixteen fathoms in length, and thirteen in breadth, with proportionable flanks, in which he left only twenty-six men, with provisions, ammunition, and all other necessaries, and called it Charles's Fort. This done, he sailed some leagues further along the coast, and finding it dangerous, and his provisions almost spent, returned to France. Those left in the new fort, discovered up the river, and contracted great friendship with five

Indian princes, whose subjects, when their provisions failed, gave them all they had; and when that was spent, guided them to other princes southward, who freely presented them with what they wanted. The fort happening accidentally to be burnt down, the Indians of their own accord rebuilt it. The French had lived long in a peaceable manner; and having no enemy abroad, they fell out among themselves, and murdered their captain, choosing another in his stead. After which, growing weary of the place, they built a small bark, and put to sea in it; but their provisions failing, they were all like to perish, and eat one of their company. In this distress they met an English vessel, which set some of them ashore, and carried the rest into England.

Anno 1564, the French captain Laudonniere had the command of three ships given him by the king of France, and sailed with them on the 22d of April for Florida. He passed by the islands Antilles, and arrived on the coast of Florida on 22d of June. After spending some days along the coast, every where entertained with the greatest tokens of affection by the Indians, he sailed up the river of May, and finding a convenient place, erected a fort, which he called Caroline, in honour of Charles king of France. The fort finished, Laudonniere sent some of his men up the river, who at several times ran eighty leagues, always meeting with natives that courted their friendship. After some time many mutinies happened among the French, of whom several went away with two brigantines to the Spanish islands; and having committed some rapine, were closely pursued, and driven back to Florida, where four of them were hanged. Whilst these mutineers were abroad, Laudonniere sent some of his men up the river, who discovered as far as the great lake out of which it runs, and the mountain Apalache, in which the Indians

said there were rich mines. The following winter the French having exchanged away all their commodities, the Indians forsook them, and they were reduced to great straits, being obliged to use force to get provisions. In the height of their distress, when they had thoughts of venturing to return to France in a small vessel, scarce able to contain them, with very slender provisions, Mr. Hawkins, before-mentioned, who this same year had made another voyage to Guinea, and thence to the West-Indies to sell blacks, and in his way home ran along the coast of Florida, coming to the river of May found the French in this distress, and therefore sold them a ship upon credit, generously supplying them with all they wanted, which done, he sailed away and returned to England. The French were now preparing to depart to France, this being

Anno 1565; when, in August, Capt. John Ribault arrived with seven sail of French ships to take possession of that country. A few days after, six great Spanish ships came upon the coast, and gave chase to four of Ribault's that were without the port, which being better sailors escaped; and Ribault made out with the other three after them, leaving Laudonniere in the fort with eighty-five men, where the Spaniards attacked him, and made themselves master of the fort. Laudonniere, with some of his men, escaped aboard two ships they had in the river, in one of which he arrived in England, thence into France. Ribault, with his ships, as soon as he was out of May river met with a dreadful storm, which wrecked them all on the coast of Florida, where abundance of his men saved themselves from the sea, but were afterwards destroyed by the Spaniards.

The attempt to discover a north-east passage to India having miscarried, people began again to entertain the hopes of succeeding by a

north-west passage. Accordingly queen Elizabeth sent Martin Frobisher out with three small ships in 1567. On the 11th of July he saw land in 61 deg. N. lat. which land he supposed to be the Friesland of Zeno; and here he found a great quantity of ice. On the 28th of the same month he saw land again, which he took for the coast of Labrador. On the 1st of August land again appeared, and a large island of ice, which the next day fell to pieces with a dreadful noise. On the 11th he was in a strait, though perhaps it was merely a sound. After he had made them some presents, the inhabitants came on board the ship, and the next day one of them went on board in the ship's boat, and was taken ashore again; but the five sailors who were with him, went to the natives, contrary to orders, and neither they, nor the boat, were ever seen again. Upon this, they seized on a native, and took him along with them; but he died soon after his arrival in England. Amongst other things which they carried home with them was a black, shining, and very heavy stone, which was gold marcasite, (*pyrites aureus*) as it contained a considerable quantity of gold.

The gold found in this stone encouraged the members of the Society to send the next year (1577) three other ships. Martin Frobisher was again commander in chief. When he had got to the distance of six days sail from the Orkneys, he met with a great quantity of driftwood, which was continually driven forwards with a current setting from the S. W. to the N. E. After 26 days failing in a west and north-west direction, he went from the Orkneys to the country which was by them taken for Friesland. Soon after, he came to Frobisher's Strait, where, even so late as the 4th of July, all was still covered with snow and ice. Nevertheless he could not persuade himself that the cold was so intense as to freeze the sea-

water,

water, and so much the less, as the difference between the tides of ebb and flood was above ten fathoms; indeed, Frobisher found ice at the distance of upwards of one thousand miles from any land whatever, and this ice consisted of fresh, and not of salt water. At the same time it is inconceivable how this ice should break off from the entire mass, the air being so sharp here, and the rays of the sun falling so obliquely, as never to be elevated, even when it is at the highest, more than 23 degrees, 30 minutes, above the horizon. It must therefore have been either very rapid streams and torrents of fresh water, or else a high flood, which can have had force sufficient to detach these enormous masses of ice, and carry them into the sea. Frobisher, not daring to approach nearer with his ships on account of the ice, went on shore with boats, and having examined every thing, and also seized on a native of the country, he returned again on board, and brought word, that in the bowels of the bare and barren mountains, probably great riches were hidden. He landed on several other spots, and at every place attempted to lay hold on some of the natives; but they sometimes defending themselves bravely with their bows and arrows, some of which were armed with iron points, but most of them with sharp stones or bones, the English fired, too, on their part, and wounded some of them, who then, in order to avoid being taken, leaped into the sea and drowned themselves, an action which appeared very extraordinary to the English, who intended to cure their wounds, and carry them over to England. The Greenlanders used every art possible to be practised in order to entice the English to land, insomuch that one of them feigned himself lame, and got another to carry him; however, they could not lay hold on the English: these latter, on the contrary, frightened the Greenlanders away by firing off

their blunderbusses, when the pretended cripple ran away with the rest very swiftly, and without limping in the least. The English examined their huts (made of the skins of reindeer and the hides of other animals) and found some of the clothes of the five Englishmen who had been missing the year before. They found also some other miserable habitations of the natives, made of stones heaped up together. After this follows a description of their boats for one man, as also of those for the women, their darts, clothes, and furniture. Of two women whom they found there, they took one along with them, together with her wounded child; the other was left on the spot, on account of her extreme ugliness. The sailors, moreover, suspected this woman to have a cloven foot; but her buskins being taken off her legs, her feet were found to be exactly like those of other human beings. They then took some more of the glittering stones along with them, and set sail again for England.—During the voyage the Greenland captives, both man and woman, behaved with great decorum, and exhibited a degree of chastity and modesty which was not expected from them. The admiral's ship was separated from the two smaller ones in a storm, both of which, however, got safe, the one into Bristol, and the other into Scotland, as did the admiral's ship in Milford Haven.

The remark of the author of Frobisher's voyage, on the current which carried the great quantity of drift-wood they met with, in a direction from south-west to north-east, has since been frequently confirmed. For it is by this current that so many West-Indian woods and fruits are cast on shore in Ireland, Scotland, the Faro Islands, the Western Islands, Orkneys, the Shetland Islands, Iceland, and Norway; and it is probable that the black and red beans or pease, which were afterwards, in the third voyage,



voyage, found in the huts of the Greenlanders, and which, it is to be presumed, came from the *arbus precatorius*, but were supposed to be fruits from Guinea, had been brought by the same current. In the same manner the Icelanders are furnished with wood for firing, and receive other great advantages, by means of this current; and other seafaring people have, in Nova Zembla and Spitzbergen, as also in Greenland, and even on the northern and eastern coasts of Siberia, every where found great quantities of this drift-wood, which was of great use to them in building their dwellings, as also for fire-wood.

That this part of Greenland discovered by Frobisher, which is situated more to the southward than any part of Iceland, or than Drontheim, in Norway, is nevertheless far colder and more surrounded with ice than these latter places, seems chiefly to proceed from the following circumstances, viz. that the country of Greenland stretches very far to the northwards, and is full of inlets, running deep into the country, and sounds, where, in hard winters, masses of ice of an astonishing size are generated by the mountains of snow which are blown down from off the high rocks, and in the spring, in consequence of the thaws, of heavy rains, and of the

sea-water dashing upon them, are converted into ice. These mountains of ice are torn off by the tides and torrents of rain-water, and at length carried out to sea. But frequently they are so numerous, that in the streights between Iceland and Greenland they are pressed together by storms, and without previously melting, freeze into one mass so as to form large fields of ice; particularly if they happen to be formed on sand-banks or shallows, and cannot go any farther; for they extend to such an astonishing depth in the water, that hardly one-fiftieth part of them is above the surface of it, and sometimes many thousand feet of such a mass are under water. Now, as by these enormous mountains and fields of ice, large tracts of the ocean are entirely covered with ice, and consequently no vapours from the sea, which are usually mild and damp, can reach the land in Greenland, or at least but in very small quantities, the cold must be thereby prodigiously augmented, when in addition to this, the north winds, already of themselves sufficiently cold, blow over these immense fields of ice, and in their course are continually cooled more and more, till at last they are rendered so cold as to be absolutely insupportable.

#### DESCRIPTION OF THE CHARACTER, CUSTOMS, AND PERSONS, OF THE AMERICAN ABORIGINES.

BY MR. BARTRAM.

[Continued from Page 205.]

*On their Government and Civil Society.*

THE constitution or system of their police is simply natural, and as little complicated as that which is supposed to direct or rule the approved oeconomy of the ant and the bee; and seems to be nothing more than the simple dictates of natural reason, plain to every one, yet recommended to them by

their wife and virtuous elders as divine, because necessary for securing mutual happiness: equally binding and effectual, as being proposed and assented to in the general combination: every one's conscience being a sufficient conviction (the golden rule, do as you would be done by) instantly presents to view, and produces a society



of peace and love, which in effect better maintains human happiness, than the most complicated system of modern politics, or sumptuary laws, enforced by coercive means: for here the people are all on an equality, as to the possession and enjoyments of the common necessities and conveniences of life, for luxuries and superfluities they have none.

This natural constitution is simply subordinate; and the supreme, sovereign and executive power resides in a council of elderly chiefs, warriors, and others, respectable for wisdom, valour, and virtue.

At the head of this venerable senate, presides their mico or king, which signifies a magistrate or chief ruler: the governors of Carolina, Georgia, &c. are called micos; and the king of England is called Antapala-mico-clucco, that is the great king, over or beyond the great water.

The king, although he is acknowledged to be the first and greatest man in the town or tribe, and honoured with every due and rational mark of love and esteem, and when presiding in council, with a humility and homage as reverent as that paid to the most despotic monarch in Europe or the East, and when absent, his seat is not filled by any other person, yet he is not dreaded; and when out of the council, he associates with the people as a common man, converses with them, and they with him, in perfect ease and familiarity.

The mico or king, though elective, yet his advancement to that supreme dignity must be understood in a very different light from the elective monarchs of the world, where the progress to magistracy is generally effected by schism and the influence of friends gained by craft, bribery, and often by more violent efforts: and after the throne is obtained, by measures little better than usurpation, he must be protected and supported there, by the

same base means that carried him thither.

But here behold the majesty of the Muscogulge mico! he does not either publicly or privately beg of the people to place him in a situation to command and rule them: no, his appearance is altogether mysterious; as a beneficent deity he rises king over them, as the sun rises to bless the earth!

No one will tell you how or when he became their king; but he is universally acknowledged to be the greatest person among them, and he is loved, esteemed, and revered, although he associates, eats, drinks, and dances with them in common as another man; his dress is the same, and a stranger could not distinguish the king's habitation, from that of any other citizen, by any sort of splendour or magnificence; yet he perceives they act as though their mico beheld them, himself invisible. In a word, their mico seems to them the representative of Providence or the Great Spirit, whom they acknowledge to preside over and influence their councils and public proceedings. He personally presides daily in their councils, either at the rotunda or public square: and even here his voice, in regard to business in hand, is regarded no more, than any other chief's or senator's, no farther than his advice, as being the best and wisest man of the tribe, and not by virtue of regal prerogative. But whether their ultimate decisions require unanimity, or only a majority of voices, I am uncertain; but probably where there is a majority, the minority voluntarily accede.

The most active part the mico takes is in the civil government of the town or tribe: here he has the power and prerogative of calling a council, to deliberate on peace and war, or all public concerns, as enquiring into, and deciding upon complaints and differences; but he has not the least shadow of exclusive executive

executive power. He is complimented with the first visits of strangers, giving audience to ambassadors, with presents, and he has also the disposal of the public granary.

The next man in order of dignity and power, is the great war chief: he represents and exercises the dignity of the mico, in his absence, in council; his voice is of the greatest weight, in military affairs; his power and authority are entirely independent of the mico, though when a mico goes on an expedition, he heads the army, and is there the war chief. There are many of these war chiefs in a town or tribe, who are captains or leaders of military parties; they are elderly men, who in their youthful days have distinguished themselves in war by valour, subtilty, and intrepidity; and these veteran chiefs, in a great degree, constitute their truly dignified and venerable senates.

There is in every town or tribe a high priest, usually called by the white people jugglers, or conjurers, besides several juniors or graduates. But the ancient high priest or seer, presides in spiritual affairs, and is a person of consequence; he maintains and exercises great influence in the state, particularly in military affairs; the senate never determine on an expedition against their enemy without his counsel and assistance. These people generally believe that their seer has communion with powerful invisible spirits, who they suppose have a share in the rule and government of human affairs, as well as the elements; that he can predict the result of an expedition; and his influence is so great, that they have been known frequently to stop, and turn back an army, when within a day's journey of their enemy, after a march of several hundred miles; and indeed their predictions have surprised many people. They foretel rain or drought, and pretend to

bring rain at pleasure, cure diseases, and exercise witchcraft, invoke or expel evil spirits, and even assume the power of directing thunder and lightning.

These Indians are by no means idolaters, unless their puffing the tobacco smoke towards the sun, and rejoicing at the appearance of the new moon, may be termed so. So far from idolatry are they, that they have no images amongst them, nor any religious rite or ceremony that I could perceive; but adore the Great Spirit, the giver and taker away of the breath of life, with the most profound and respectful homage. They believe in a future state, where the spirit exists, which they call the world of spirits, where they enjoy different degrees of tranquillity or comfort, agreeably to their life spent here: a person who in his life has been an industrious hunter, provided well for his family, an intrepid and active warrior, just, upright, and done all the good he could, will, they say, in the world of spirits, live in a warm, pleasant country, where are expansive, green, flowery savannas, and high forests, watered with rivers of pure waters, replenished with deer, and every species of game; a serene, unclouded, and peaceful sky; in short, where there is fulness of pleasure, uninterrupted.

They have many accounts of trances and visions of their people, who have been supposed to be dead, but afterwards reviving, have related their visions, which tend to enforce the practice of virtue and the moral duties.

Before I went among the Indians, I had often heard it reported, that these people, when their parents, through extreme old age, become decrepid and helpless, in compassion for their miseries, send them to the other world, by a stroke of the tomahawk or bullet. Such a degree of depravity and species of impiety always appeared to me so incredibly inhuman and horrid, that it was with

with the utmost difficulty I assumed resolution sufficient to enquire into it.

The traders assured me that they knew no instance of such barbarism; but that there had been instances of the communities performing such a deed at the earnest request of the victim.

When I was at Mucclasse town, early one morning, at the invitation of the chief trader, we repaired to the public square, taking with us some presents for the Indian chiefs. On our arrival we took our seats in a circle of venerable men, round a fire in the center of the area: other citizens were continually coming in, and among them I was struck with awe and veneration at the appearance of a very aged man; his hair, what little he had, was as white as snow; he was conducted by three young men, one having hold of each arm, and the third behind to steady him. On his approach the whole circle saluted him, "welcome," and made way for him: he looked as smiling and cheerful as youth, yet stone-blind by extreme old age: he was the most ancient chief of the town, and they all seemed to reverence him. Soon after the old man had seated himself, I distributed my presents, giving him a very fine handkerchief and a twist of choice tobacco, which passed through the hands of an elderly chief who sat next him, telling him it was a present from one of their white brothers, lately arrived in the nation from Charleston: he received the present with a smile, and thank-

ed me, returning the favour immediately with his own stone pipe and cat skin of tobacco: and then complimented me with a long oration, the purport of which was the value he set on the friendship of the Carolinians. He said, that when he was a young man, they had no iron hatchets, pots, hoes, knives, razors, nor guns, that they then made use of their own stone axes, clay pots, flint knives, bows and arrows; and that he was the first man who brought the white people's goods into his town, which he did on his back from Charleston, five hundred miles on foot, for they had no horses then amongst them.

The trader then related to me an anecdote concerning this ancient patriarch, which occurred not long before.

One morning after his attendants had led him to the council fire, before seating himself, he addressed himself to the people after this manner—

"You yet love me; what can I do now to merit your regard? nothing; I am good for nothing; I cannot see to shoot the buck or hunt up the sturdy bear; I know I am but a burthen to you; I have lived long enough; now let my spirit go; I want to see the warriors of my youth in the country of spirits: (bareing his breast) here is the hatchet, take it and strike." They answered with one united voice, "We will not; we cannot; we want you here."

[*To be continued.*]

#### ORATION ON THE PROGRESS OF REASON.

*Delivered July 18, 1792, at Cambridge, being the Day of Public Commencement.*

*From the Massachusetts Magazine.*

**T**HERE are few subjects which at this day, are new, there are still fewer capacities calculated to give an old topic the air and appearance of novelty. Law, physic,

and divinity, on occasions like this, have usually been attended by a multitude of advocates. The science of government has often been copiously discussed. Every nook and

N a corner

corner in the political world have been ransacked for the materials of these occasional performances.

Let us this day commemorate the nativity of reason, let us mark her progress from where she first twinkled in an age of darkness, to where she now shines with lustre in the hemisphere of philosophy; let us view her while in warfare with the legions of superstition; while a desponding prisoner to the passions of barbarity: let us view her while entangled in the net work of sophistry; and follow her to exile when banished from the presence of royalty. Released from her bondage, escaped from the oppression of other ages, and other nations, may we congratulate ourselves that in our own age, and in our own country, she is at length established a free, a friendly inhabitant.

By the assistance of reason, the nature of man, and almost every thing around him, once apparently wrapt in mystery inexplicable, has been illucidated and explained—The exact boundary between right and wrong, falsity and reality, has been ascertained—Fiction with all its retinue of impostors, that had travelled round the globe in disguise, were by reason first detected, and at her tribunal convicted, and condemned. Miracles she has unravelled, the absurd hypotheses of antiquity, their prodigies and their wonders, are consigned to the budgets of beggars and gypsies; like a skilful pilot she has conducted the mind through immeasurable tracts of intelligence, which its infant faculties could never have explored.

When Babel was destroyed, the human race, as we are told, were dispersed and scattered over the earth; almost the whole intelligence, moral or philosophical, that had escaped the deluge, and arrived at Ararat in safety, must have fallen at the downfall of that great land mark of association. The conceptions of that uncultivated people, must have been narrow and confined, the only

medium of their communication, apparently broken down—The harmony of one universal language, exchanged for the multifarious jargon of hundreds, each man's tongue in an instant, became a stranger to the ear of his companion. At this period it seemed as if reason was preparing to take her flight from the abuses of the world. How piteous, how deplorable, the condition of man, his mind, like the world on the first day of creation, without order or arrangement: his passions, wild and ferocious, were masters of themselves—released from the bond of association, his heart was as the heart of a beast, though clothed with the form and feature of humanity, aided by the feeble power of intuition his senses were the only guide, the only compass, to conduct him through a rough uncultivated world. At each avenue to his mind was stationed some howling Cerberus of appetite, that deafened his soul to the voice of instruction. In this condition he found himself on earth; but the why and the wherefore of existence were, enigmas beyond the reach of enquiry. Simple perception discovered effects, a chain of reasoning was wanting to lead him to heaven in search of an eternal cause.

Age after age escaped, and though reason was gradually progressive, yet, the period of its maturity was still far distant; ideas became connected, effect was discovered, to be a dependant on cause, man became convinced that neither himself nor his companion could have originated the objects in his view. The stars, though he should believe them the product of the mine, yet the very tallest of his associates could not have reached the sky to plant them in their orbits. A being there must be some where who gave birth to creation; in search of this, infant imagination dared not as yet to rove beyond the limits of sight. The sun, from the grandeur, from the majesty of his countenance, was easily

easily believed the ruler of the world, day and night, heat and cold, as they were intermediately his dependants, were thought to be subject to his will and controul, every phenomenon in his appearance intimated to them the terms on which they stood with their maker. The transit of a world was considered a mere blot of displeasure on the countenance of their God.

Such were the conceptions of man while his reason was confined to the comparatively small circuit of his senses; when the earth was considered an extensive plain, each individual stationed at its center, and his visible horizon a circle that bounded the universe.

Let us now mark a period, when mankind were comparatively advanced and refined—reason was but just released from the bondage of untutored passions, societies were but newly formed, governments but lately established, when she became again subjected to that worst, that bitterest oppression, the controul of kings. From Nimrod to Nero, and from him through the whole long line of his regal descendants, we have found them opposed to the privileges of reason, to the rights and freedom of men. The construction of human being, proves most clearly, he never was intended for sovereignty. Not a man is there on earth, who is not too noble to be a slave, yet too small to be a monarch; the power of a sovereign, has almost invariably been coupled with the will of a tyrant. In vassalage the feelings are depressed below the dignity of nature: at the moment they are let loose by prerogative, they swell to a size too unwieldy for management. The orbit of a single world is but a prison to his ambition; he no sooner becomes a monarch than he sighs to be a god. Ancient kings considered the nations as a theatre, erected for their own sport or amusement. Every act and scene in life, as the mere variances of a play, formed to

gratify their whims and their humours; combat in couples was a paltry mimicry of tragedy; nations must be embroiled, millions massacred, to give grandeur and elegance to the scene. In this state of depression, man had neither the courage nor the power to think for himself. The projects of his mind were squared and compassed by the notions of his sovereign. Weakened and oppressed by temporal usurpation, he was now easily subjected to spiritual imposition. The bull was confederated with the edict, to destroy the feeble powers of reason—under the *surplice and tiara* was engendered a scheme of mischief that for ages fettered the world in ignorance. The prince whose mind was employed in something more amusing to himself, than the cultivation of knowledge, was cautious to suppress every effort in genius to rise above the low degraded level of his own conceptions. The pope, whose jurisdiction was grounded on the ignorance of mankind, was busied in darkening the world, to increase the splendour of his own authority—a feigned commission from St. Peter gave sanction to his oppressions, and the name of justice to crimes of the deepest malignity—the keys on his girdle, those pretended emblems of power, to open the gateway to heaven, served but to lock up in ignorance and error the noblest faculties of the soul—conscience was placed under guardianship, kingdoms, principalities, and powers were subjected to the dominion of that consecrated triple-crowned potentate of creation. The human mind thus incumbered and oppressed, its powers of criticism dormant and unexercised, was open to every species of the vilest imposition; the silly logic of Aristotle was implicitly received as the only leading string to truth; every position was false or absurd that bore not the test of his catagories and syllogisms. To demonstration he proved, that the very air we breathe,



and the firmament that covers us, were solid as adamant; and because the unfortunate Tycho allowed space in the heavens for planets to revolve, he was condemned as an heretic to true philosophy. Aristarchus, Copernicus, and Galileo, affronted their tutelar gods for daring to believe that the long reputed motion of the sun was in fact the rightful property of earth. These systems of false logicians and bigoted philosophers most powerfully obstructed the advancement of reason—for two thousand years, the mind was confined in its operations to rule and to form—its infant faculties were stripped of all the little discernment they inherited from nature; instinct and intuition, without the assistance of syllogism, were declared unable to determine even their own existence—not a being was authorized to think, who thought not agreeably to established formularies. At this period credulity was open mouthed, yet so managed and tutored by the artful doctrinists of the times, as to be wholly inaccessible to any thing but absurdity—their systems of religion were crowded with story, allusion, fable, miracle, and all the paltry stuff which infatuated imagination could suggest.

The head, once crazed by being turned, feels a giddiness for a time even after its motion has ceased. And though reason by gradual accretions of strength had become too potent for the sport of sophisters, and the more daring outrages of tyrants, yet the day of her rejoicing was not yet arrived, her perfection, her victory were reserved for the age in which, my friends, we have the felicity to live—the losses of centuries by the work of a few years seems to be wholly repaired—this country, from the beginning of its civilization, to the present period of refinement, has exhibited a most wonderful experiment in the world of philosophy. It has proved the immense stretch of exertion, of which the powers of the mind are

susceptible. Our ancestors, a few whole souls were too active to be enslaved, fled to this land as an asylum, where conscience might live in security—they were as a spark from the conflagration in England, blown hither by the breath of heaven to enkindle a flame of intelligence, that at one day should illumine the world. British oppressions, with all its infernal retinue, came commissioned by a monarch to extinguish the blaze, and slaughter its guardians. Ere their embassy was complicated, the scourge of providence hurried them from our territory.

No longer borne down, by the incumbrance of royalty, we have chosen for ourselves, a system of government dictated by reason, a government that is calculated to preserve the happiness of our nation, the rights and freedom of men. Our liberties as in ancient days, are neither the subject of charter or grant, nor can they be bequeathed as a legacy among the goods and chattels of a sovereign. As in monarchies, we are not subject of course to the dominion of a prince, whose right to govern is dependant on his pedigree.—we now are not, and I trust in God never again shall be reduced to the humiliating necessity of clothing our nation in sable, at the exit of a tyrant; or of shouting with rapture, at the coronation of a fool. In our government the quality of blood, is not the smallest apology, for vacancy of head or hardness of heart. The man who is most virtuous; the man who is most wise, and whose exertions for his country's welfare have been most conspicuous, will be raised to authority by the voice of his countrymen, though not a single particle of royalty ever floated in his veins, though not one of his ancestors, ever invaded a nation and pillaged its freedom.

Unrestricted by the silly maxim in British policy, we dare, we will indulge the full scope of discussion  
and



and enquiry; the eye of reason can neither be blurred by prejudice, nor dazzled by the splendour of court authority.

The chief ruler of our land, though not inferior to any potentate on earth, is not yet removed from the rank of man, and like the rest of mortals, is consequently subject to error and wrong. His virtues, the tongue of slander dare never profane; for his errors, he himself is responsible; there is no bulwark of miniltry, to defend him against the censure of his constituents. His exertions for the welfare, not a mere fiction in government, will for ever insure him the support of his country.

Our laws, gradually purified from the corruption of monarchic codes, exhibit the strongest features of wisdom and rationality. The absurdities of the confined combat and ordeal, are no where to be found in our collection—we try not the goodness of the heart by the firmness of the skin, nor dare we make a blasphemous appeal to heaven, for a decision in our controversies. But never shone with such lustre the wisdom of our legislatures, as when they broke down that absurd discrimination in colour, which so long disturbed the equilibrium of general felicity; when they countenanced that inhuman, barbarous traffic, that drew into misery and wretchedness, millions of our fellow mortals, a race of beings who though in feature and complexion less delicate, stand on the same level with ourselves, in the system of creation. Here suffer me to express a wish and hope that our general government may ere long appease the upbraiding of humanity, by declaring that our tawny brethren in the west, have still a right of residence on their native soil. May it not be said of our country, that a single inhabitant on its territory has known oppression. May it not be said of our country, it has sanctioned injustice, cruelty, and extortion, yea it has

stolen from our brethren a right which God and nature granted. Our religion is of that kind which sprang not from troubled passion and distracted brain, it had its nativity in heaven, and to that abode, will it safely conduct every one of its adherents—superstition, whose desolating routine but a few years since, crossed our country in blood, is now chained down and confined to the solitary regions of the earth. Blessed with the light of christianity, we melt cordially pity and feign would relieve from his error, the Pagan whose gods are as senseless as the steel that formed them. The eye of reason looks down, with a most sovereign compassion, on the poor deluded pilgrim, while crouching beneath a shed, that covers but the mouldering skeleton of an impostor.

But the revolution which we have seen, my friends, in our own country, was not confined to a few states or a single nation; it was the beginning of a change that is rapidly spreading itself, to every corner of the world. France, but four years since, in every part of her kingdom exhibited the strongest traits of ancient absurdity. Old institutions yet existed, which had their origin at a time, when the soldier and his sword, were alike susceptible—her people were enlightened, yet these mementos of her former barbarity were suffered to remain—their queen, but woman, was extolled to the dignity of angel—their king, something less than a man, was adored and revered as a god. Their laws, never formed to guarantee the rights of a noble people, served but to bind the subject, in homage and fealty eternally to his prince. Their clergy a set of subtle hypocritical monsters, within the secret purlicus of a convent, were mixing poisons to diffuse through community. Their estates, purchased by masses and requiems, secured by art and chicanery, extended to every corner of the kingdom; their influence, their authority,

authority, was unbounded as their wickedness. Such was the state of this kingdom when the genius of freedom first lighted on its shores; reason now asserted her privileges, power dared no longer withhold them from her possession.

Their former government, that venerated fabric of ignorance, reared up by old Gallic tyrants, was pulled down and demolished, monastic institutions, with all their grants, charters, and prescriptive titles, were overwhelmed—the rights of the bishop, were discovered to be grounded on the wrongs they had done to mankind. Evils of every denomination, by a slow gradual progress, had reached the very vitals of the politic body; it was found to be incurable, and therefore better be destroyed than remain for ever an annoyance to the world.

At this period the age of chivalry ceased, and though a Burke may lament that nature appeared in her nakedness; yet to the view of reason,

how much more comely and beautiful than when clad in the rags and tatters of her former apparel. In the history of the world, it will appear to posterity wonderful, miraculous, that in an age of refinement, for five hundred years, in almost the largest metropolis of the world, there was suffered to stand, an awful cemetery, where monarchs buried their living subjects, under the name of Bastile; a lofty monument built up over the family sepulchre of thousands.

But the day I predict is not far distant, when like this levelled battlement every prop and pillar of tyranny shall be crushed, when slavish monarchies and slavish hierarchies, shall be done away, when the lion shall dwell with the lamb and the leopard lie down with the kid—when nation shall no more lift up sword against nation; and the last, universal empire on earth, shall be the empire of reason and virtue.

#### ON THE MIGRATION OF FISHES.

*In a Letter from the Hon. B. Lincoln, Esq. to the Rev. Jeremy Belknap, of New Hampshire.*

SINCE I saw you last, I have found some parts of the copy of a letter I wrote to Mr. Little, with a design to convince him, that the river fish never forsake the waters in which they were spawned, unless some unnatural obstructions are thrown in their way: that when obstructed, they do not seek new sources in which they may lodge their spawn; but that they are so strongly allured to the same rout, that they annually return to their natural river, pressing constantly for a passage into their mother pond. That the quiet waters of the lake can alone give that nourishment and protection necessary to the existence of the egg; the preservation of which is indispensable, if an extinction of the schull is to be prevented.

The practice is not novel in this State, when from some unnatural obstructions, the fish have been totally expelled from a river, to re-establish them in their former numbers. About fifty years since, it was known, that at the first settlement of this town, the alewives had a passage through it, into Accord pond, and were in such plenty as to give a full supply to the inhabitants. This induced the people at that time to attempt the re-establishment of them, in which they succeeded by opening proper fish-ways through the mill-dams, and conveying the fish, in the spring of the year, in a proper vehicle, into the pond; this was done by keeping it near the bank of the river, and frequently shifting the water in the vessel. After this, the fish

fish increased annually until there was a pretty good supply; but as there were many shoal places in the river, which required very constant attention, the expence of which and the loss sustained by stopping the mills, exceeded, in the opinion of the town, the advantages of the fish, the business was neglected; so that for a number of years they have been perfectly cut off from the pond. Notwithstanding some of the fish annually return to the mouth of the river urging a passage up; but they are decreased in number and reduced in size.

We shall find on examination, that the fish though of the same kind, in one river are much larger and fatter than in any other river in its vicinity. If these fish were suffered to intermix, the difference now so very apparent would not exist. If the fish are not directed by some laws in nature, to the rivers in which they were spawned, how shall we account for the salmon being in Connecticut river and in Merrimack, and the rivers lying between, perfectly destitute of those fish? Was there not something irresistibly enchanting in the waters in which they respectively originated, we should probably find some straggling salmon in the intermediate rivers.

Whilst I resided in Philadelphia in 1782 and 1783, I discovered that the shad brought to market from the Schuylkill were about one third part better than those taken in the Delaware. These fish come up the bay together in the spring, and take each schull its proper river, about five miles below the city; they are caught but a few miles above it, so that in a few hours after they divide, they fall into the nets of the fisherman. Were there not something in the nature of the water of these rivers, by which the fish are allured to them respectively, we certainly should find the fish in the different rivers exactly alike, for we cannot suppose that they experience any material change between the time of their separation

and the time of their being caught. As the shad taken in the Schuylkill are and always have been of a much superior quality to those taken in the Delaware, we must suppose that there is, in the river first mentioned, food for the fish more nutritive than there is in the latter. I cannot think it a very romantic idea, that the waters are so impregnated with certain particles which shall be sufficient to allure the fish to those rivers in which they were spawned, or that they are invited to them by the returning fry, on which they have been accustomed to feed. That they do feed differently, some on food more nutritive than others, cannot be denied; to this is owing the different size of the fish. They leave the rivers under different circumstances, and so return to them again.

The shad and alewife frequent the same waters in which they drop their spawns. The shad, prior to this, work up a little circular sand-bank, on which the spawns are lodged, and are guarded from that destruction to which they would be exposed from the small fish, did not the male constantly play around the deposit.—While the eggs or spawns of the alewife are secured by being deposited in shoal water, which prevents their being annoyed by the large fish.

The idea that fish always return to the same rivers in which they are spawned, will not appear improbable when we consider what are the general laws which seem to controul the whole finny tribe; and what would be the probable consequences should they be thrown down.

On the shores of the United States we find fish of different kinds, each supplying a certain proportion of the inhabitants. These are restrained by some laws in nature to their own feeding ground; they do not invade the rights of others, nor are their rights infringed by any. New York is in the neighbourhood of Rhode-Island, and that State is in the neighbourhood of this, yet each State

has

has a very different fish-market. So it is with Pennsylvania and the States south of it. Notwithstanding this, all are supplied, and with kinds of fish peculiar to each. The codfish which occupy the banks lying between the latitudes of 41 and 45, are very different on the different banks; and are kept so distinct, and are so similar on the respective banks, that a man acquainted with the fishing business, will separate those caught on one bank from those caught on another, with as much ease as we separate the apple from the pear.

It will be acknowledged that there can exist but a certain number only of fish in any given space; was not this the case, as they are so prolific in their nature, they would, from their natural increase, soon so multiply, as that the world, if I may be allowed the expression, would not contain them.

On the banks there appears nearly as many fish as ever, notwithstanding the great numbers annually taken. The grand bank was, three years ago, manifestly over stocked, there were more fish on it than could find support; those taken were evidently on the decline, they were very thin, the substance tender; it could not be hardened and preserved by salt; many of them would yield before the knife in splitting, and fall to pieces before they could be conveyed to the flakes. The cause is not known, probably the spawns of that season were better preserved than they had usually been.

Were those restraining laws of nature, which now confine the different schools of fish to their own limits, thrown down, and all could wander without controul, there would be the most imminent danger of a total destruction of nearly the whole kind, as well in the rivers as on the banks, for, as was said before, there can but a certain number exist in a given space.

Permit me farther to request, in support of the doctrine advanced, an attention to that system and order so

conspicuous in the operations of nature, and the great regularity preserved among the things of creation, animate and inanimate, by that wisdom which made and governs the world.

Let us take a view of the different nations dispersed over the face of the earth, by him who originally fixed bounds to the habitations of men, and as a restraint to them; and that each tribe should retain its own limits, he gave to each nation a different language: we find the different nations and tribes, though possessing very different climates, and if we were to judge, enjoying the means of different degrees of happiness, severally tenacious of the limits assigned them; and where God is acknowledged, they very sincerely and universally thank him that they are favoured above their fellow men.

Was it not for the superintending care, and the influence of the Governor of the universe, who scatters in the paths of men such motives as fall with weight and conviction on their minds, and lead them to prefer their climate above any other, no inhabitants would be found in the burning sands under the torrid, nor on the frozen craggy mountains under the frigid zones: we find, however, under each, multitudes of people, who are so fitted for their respective situations, that they are not only happy, but are really partial to the place assigned them, and envy not the dominion of others, and seldom or never invade them, but from motives of avarice, pride, and ambition.

We find that the people who inhabited the American shores, on the first discovery of them, were divided into little kingdoms or tribes, each speaking a different language, and were enemies one to the other; hence they were preserved from famine and want, for they depended principally upon the spontaneous growth of the earth, and upon fishing and hunting for their support. What-

ever

ever kept them asunder was an act of mercy; with their ideas, they could not have lived compactly, ruin must have been the necessary consequence of the attempt.

What sort of that influence necessary to preserve the natural order of things, could have prevented mankind from abandoning the more inhospitable parts of the globe, running together and uniting in climes the most friendly and pleasant, and much the greater part of them becoming hereby their own executioners. Although from an high cultivation of the earth, food may be drawn for a great multitude of people, yet population cannot exceed certain bounds; whenever that takes place, the salubrity of the air is destroyed, contagion rages, the people sicken and die.

Let me now point you to the birds of passage, and ask that you would permit your ideas to follow them in their flight from south to north, in spring, and from north to south, in autumn, and you will find that they are annually pointed to the same objects, and are as constant in their flight, and as regular in their course, as are the seasons. We may, at a particular time of the year, trace the swallow into its hiding place, and the robin and the lark to the forests, where they retire for shelter from the inclemency of an approaching winter, and see them in the morning of spring returning to the same habitations and branches, and often to the same nests they occupied before, and which from necessity they had abandoned. Different fowls, natives of different climes, are so fitted to their native air, that many of them cannot exist out of it.

The rattle-snake, the most poisonous reptile in this part of the country, is circumscribed in his limits, and cannot exist beyond a certain degree of northern latitude, nor can he be transported across the Atlantic. By what laws in nature he is restrained we know not; that he is restrained is a fact, and is not

known in one part of this commonwealth, while much dreaded in another. The same restraint lies on different reptiles in the southern States; and though one part are in a degree endangered by them, yet others are perfectly free from their poisonous stings. These animals, necessary on the whole, as are the flies, which multiply in proportion to the impurity of the air by which they are surrounded, make a part of the great whole, and have, I doubt not, a benevolent commission, in the execution of which the happiness of man is materially concerned.

Beasts of the most ferocious kind, necessary in the chain, are peculiar to certain climates, and are the least dreaded where most known: a belief that they will not exceed the limits assigned them, prevents their giving terror to others, while those of a different kind serve for our use, are fitted to live in the various climates in which they have been placed, and seem by some instinct of nature to be perfectly submissive; and are bound with much ease to the limits assigned them.

When we take a view of the whole of the order established originally, and which has been preserved in the world; when we see man dispersed over the face of the earth, and an evident design that he should remain so dispersed, and when we behold, that in consequence thereof, care has been taken that under every circumstance of civilization, or barbarism, a full supply of food can be obtained by each, in a way best fitted to themselves; when we see the birds of passage, anxious to perform their part, and which is important indeed to some of the inhabitants in the higher latitudes, taught to fly in winter to climes more friendly to their existence, and led back to nourish the waking Laplander, after a winter of retirement and sleep. When we see the care exercised towards man evinced in the existence of even the most poisonous animals, fitted to inhale the more subtil and pointed

particles



particles floating in air, which are too keen for our habits, and observe the irritating fly, busily employed in sipping the putrid matter, in the first stages of it, which otherwise would float incompatible with a salubrious atmosphere, necessary to our happiness: when we see the natural timidity implanted in the nature of the most ferocious animal, fleeing at the approach of man; and the docility of those more immediately intended for our use. When we carefully review these things, and study with attention the works of nature, the great book of God, which if understood cannot mislead, and our minds are guided by proper considerations, we shall be freed from all anxious fears, lest one part of the system should clash with another, but instead thereof we shall find ourselves perfectly satisfied in the belief that each will occupy its own orb until the whole shall be dissolved.

I have little doubt in my own mind but that every river, whose source is in a lake or pond, where the waters are quiet, might with great ease be replenished with some kind of fish or other. I think there was

a time when they were filled. Could we succeed in this measure, the advantages would be important, for it would multiply our cod and other ground fish about our shores, in proportion as we increase the small river fish, for they are the proper food of the ground fish, which in pursuit thereof, are allured quite into our harbours, and give us a more easy supply. We have undoubtedly been criminally inattentive to the propagation of the oyster in different parts of our shores; we can probably fill our channels with these shell-fish with much more ease than we can fill our pastures with herds and flocks.

I have a satisfaction in submitting these observations to you, which is seldom to be enjoyed, viz. that I shall receive a full compensation, one smile will do it, that I am sure they will beget, for you must long since have been taught that we had better smile than weep at the vanity of others.

With esteem and affection, I am always your friend,

B. LINCOLN.

Hingham, Dec. 12, 1791.

## COMMENTS ON STERNE.

BY JOHN FERRIAR, M.D.

From the Memoirs of the Philosophical Society at Manchester.

Vos adeste  
Rifus, blanditiæ, procacitates,  
Lusus, nequitia, facetiæque,  
Joci, deliciæque et illecebæ.

BUCHANAN.

THIS is almost the only satirical and ethical writer of note, who wants a commentator. The works of Rabelais, Butler, Pope, Swift, and many others, are over-loaded with explanations, while Sterne remains, in many places, unintelligible to the greater number of his readers. I would gladly discharge this debt of gratitude, to an author who has afforded me much delight; but my leisure hours can but produce some general traces, or occasional

hints, that amount only to an amusing relaxation. Some person whose zeal is greater, and his literary repose complete, may work the mine I have opened, with profit and splendour.

Indeed, there is some danger in attempting to detect the sources from which Sterne drew his rich singularities. It has been fashionable of late, to decry the analysis of objects of admiration, and those who wish to trace the mysteries of wit

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and literary pleasure, are held to be profane dissectsors, who mangle the carcase of learning, out of spleen and idle curiosity. Besides, the originality of Sterne has scarcely been made a problem; on the contrary, he is considered as the inventor of a new style in our language. I cannot help thinking, however, with honest Mungo in the farce, that it imports us little to hear, what we do not understand; and though far beneath the dignity of Horace or Pope, who professed to admire nothing, I think it very unphilosophical, to let wonder conquer reason, especially in the closet.

To be too curious in the survey of beautiful performances, is to invite disgust. The colossal statues of Phidias, though polished to perfection without, bore a rude appearance to those who examined them within: but if a limb, or a feature of a work, should appear to be purloined from the labours of a former artist, it would be right to look for his mark.

In tracing some of Sterne's ideas to other writers, I do not mean to treat him as a Plagiarist; I wish to illustrate not to degrade him. If some instances of copying be proved against him, they will detract nothing from his genius, and will only lessen that imposing appearance he sometimes assumed, of erudition which he really wanted.

It is obvious to every one, who considers Tristram Shandy as a general satire, levelled chiefly against the abuse of speculative opinions, that Rabelais furnished Sterne with the general character, and even many particular ideas, of his work. From that copious fountain of learning, wit, and whim, our author drew deeply. Rabelais, stored with erudition, poured lavishly out, what Sterne directed and expanded with care, to enrich his pages. And to this appropriation, we owe many of his most pleasing fallies. For being bounded in his literary acquirements, his imagination had

freer play, and more natural graces. He seized the grotesque objects of obsolete erudition, presented by his original, with a vigour untamed by previous labour, and an ardour unabated by familiarity with literary folly. The curious Chapters on Noses afford the strongest proof of this remark. About the time when Sterne wrote, it was not forgotten indeed, that the physiognomy of the nose had been a kind of fashionable subject among philosophers; but little was written, and little remains on the controvery, and what Sterne gives us, is founded on the following passage of Rabelais: "Pourquoy, dit Gargantua, est ce que frere Jean a si beau nez? Par ce (repondit Grangousier) qu'aini dieu l'a voulu, lequel nous fait en telle forme, & telle fin, selon son divin arbitre, que fait un potier les vaisseaux. Par ce (dit Ponocrates) qu'il fut des premiers a la foire des nez. Il print de plus beaux & des plus grands. Trut avant (dit le moine) selon la vraye Philosophie Monastique, c'est, par ce que ma Nourrice avoit les tetins molets, en l'allaitant, mon nez y enfondroit comme en beurre, et la s'ellevoit et croissoit comme la paste dedans la mets. Les durs tetins des Nourrices font les enfans camus. Mais gay, gay, ad formam nasi cognoscitur ad te levavi."

"Now Ambrose Paræus convinced my father that the true and efficient cause of what had engaged so much the attention of the world, and upon which Prignitz and Scroderus had wasted so much learning and fine parts—was neither this nor that—but that the length and goodness of the nose, was owing simply to the softness and flaccidity of the nurse's breast—as the flatness and shortness of puiſne noses was, to the firmness and elastic repulsion of the same organ of nutrition in the hale and lively—which, though happy for the woman, was the undoing of the child, inasmuch as his nose was so snubbed, so rebuffed, so rebated, and so refrigerated thereby,

never to arrive *ad mensuram suam legitimam*;—but that in case of the flaccidity and softness of the nurse or mother's breast—by sinking into it, quoth Paracelsus, as into so much butter, the nose was comforted, nourished, &c."

"—the causes of short and long noses. There is no cause but one, replied my uncle Toby—why one man's nose is longer than another's, but because that God pleases to have it so. That is Granoussier's solution, said my father.—'Tis he, continued my uncle Toby, looking up, and not regarding my father's interruption, who makes us all, and frames and puts us together, in such forms and proportions, and for such ends, as is agreeable to his infinite wisdom."

I wish Sterne had known enough of Taliacotius to have done him justice, on the subject of noses. The practice of that extraordinary man, which has been obscured by misplaced raillery, and the imputation of follies entirely foreign to his method, deserves to be better known. It was both rational and successful; and it is a considerable addition to his fame, that he anticipated later physiologists in some surprising and important facts respecting the reunion of living parts. Sterne has played unaccountably with the public curiosity, on the subject of a very silly book, which he attempts to pass off as curious, merely because it is obscure. This is the more surprising, because his fiction of Slawkenbergius is admirable. Mr. Shandy has the good fortune, we are told, to get Bruscambille's Prologue on Noses almost for nothing—that is, for three half crowns. "There are not three Bruscambilles in Christendom—said the stall-man, except what are chained up in the libraries of the curious." This is well calculated to excite the appetites of epicures in literature, which perhaps was all the author intended; and which is ill supported by the work in question. That no future col-

lector may sigh for Bruscambille, I will give as much of his Prologue on Noses as deserves the patience of a reader. I shall only premise, that the book consists of a set of prose discourses, printed at Cologne, in 1741, which seem to have ushered in comedy, farce, or puppet-show, according to the exigencies of the night: they resemble the prologues of Terence, only in the freedom with which M. Bruscambille treats his audience.

"Je n'entreprend point de faire ici une ample description des différents nez, avec les propriétés singulières qui leur sont annexées; j'en dirois peut être trop des grands nez au préjudice des nez médiocres, des petits nez, des nez cornus, des nez plats, & autres de toute sorte d'espèce, je me contente de dire que les grands nez ont beaucoup d'avantage sur les petits pour les odeurs dont ils sont l'organe naturel, d'autant que par leur capacité plus étendue ils peuvent recevoir plus de vapeurs odoriférantes & que celles qui montent de bas en haut leur peuvent moins échapper qu'aux petits nez: en un mot, Messieurs, si c'est quelque chose de beau, de bon, de louable, d'avantageux en tout genre d'avoir du nez, il le doit être encore plus d'avoir du grand nez," &c.

The mock quotations, explanatory of the Promontory of Noses, in Slawkenbergius's tale, are merely designed to cover the use made of Rabelais's proverb; "il fut à la foire des nez." Sterne has diverted himself sometimes with references to some parts of this author, that appear enigmatical enough. For instance; "Who was Tickleto's mare?" I believe many of Rabelais's readers would be puzzled to answer. Sterne alludes to the story of poor Tappecoue, who fell a sacrifice to the resentment of the devils of Poitiers.

At other times, Sterne indulges in all the Gallimatias of the old Frenchman.

Frenchman.—“Bon jour! good morrow!—do you have got your cloak on betimes! but 'tis a cold morning, and you judge the matter rightly—'tis better to be well mounted than to go o' foot—and obstructions in the glands are dangerous—And how goes it with thy concubine—thy wife—and thy little ones o' both sides? and when did you hear from the old gentleman and lady,” &c.

I believe this brilliant passage is founded on the Prologue to Rabelais's fourth book. Some of Sterne's other imitations do him more credit; but in the eighth volume of Tristram he was not very nice in taking assistance. “Gens de Bien,” says Rabelais, “Dieu vous sauve et gard. Ou estes vous? je ne peux vous voir. Attendez que je chauffe mes lunettes. Ha, ha, bien & beau s'en va Quaresme, je vois voy. Et donques? Vous avez eu bonne vinee, a ce que l'on m'a dit.—Vous, vos femmes, en fans, parens et familles estes en santé desirée. Cela va bien, cela est bon, cela me plaist—” &c. Certainly this trash must be one of those passages, escaped, as Rabelais declares that he wrote ‘en mangeant et buvant,’ after he had taken a cup too much.

Perhaps it would do violence to the analogy, to say that the exquisite dialogues, scattered through Tristram Shandy, took any colour from those delivered by Rabelais.—At least, it would appear to be refining

[ To be continued. ]

too far. Yet the contrast and contention of characters and professions so striking in both romances; the strong ridicule thrown upon the love of hypothesis; and the art with which absurdities in every walk in science are exposed, have always impressed me with a general idea of resemblance; and have recalled Pantagruel, Panurge, and Epilemon, in many of the Shandean conversations. If there be any degree of imitation in this respect, it is greatly to Sterne's honour. A higher polish was never given to rugged materials. But there can be no doubt respecting Sterne's obligations to another author, once the favourite of the learned and witty, though now unaccountably neglected. I have often wondered at the pains bestowed by Sterne, in ridiculing opinions not fashionable in his day, and have thought it singular, that he should produce the portrait of his sophist, Mr. Shandy, with all the stains and mouldiness of the last century about him. For the love of scarce and whimsical books was no vice of the time when Tristram Shandy appeared. But I am now convinced, that all the singularities of that character were drawn from the perusal of Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy; not without reference, however, to the peculiarities of Burton's life, who is alledged to have fallen a victim to his astrological studies. We are told, accordingly, that Mr. Shandy had faith in astrology,

## RASHNESS OF CENSURING THE LAWS OF CREATION.

BY EDMUND RACK, ESQ.

“And who but wishes to invert the laws  
“Of Order—fins against th' Eternal Cause.”

IT has been the employment of some discontented minds to disturb the peace of others, by finding fault with the laws by which Providence supports and governs the world.

They deplore the decline of summer with unavailing lamentation, and affect to feel a kind of horror to the approach of dull days and wintry blasts, of long nights and leafless groves. Some have vainly endeavoured

endeavoured to prove the constitution of nature imperfect, from the alternate change of seasons, and from the constant succession of cold and heat, sterility and fruitfulness, in all the habitable parts of the earth. They have been presumptuous enough to assert, that the inconveniences arising from the annual revolution of the seasons would be remedied by a change in the order of our system; and that the presence of a perpetual spring would constitute a scene of greater beauty and happiness than we now enjoy. Thus have they shown forth the folly of their own minds, and endeavoured to interrupt the tranquillity of others, by vain murmurings, originating in discontent, and ending in impiety.

From ignorance of their own frame, and of the nature and powers of the human mind, arises this disposition. They know not the manner in which the soul is affected by the body, or the body by the elements that surround it; Nor do they form any just idea of the various relations that subsist between the various ranks of being in the universe, or of the secret communication the one has with the other.

To trace the frame and constitution of human nature, from first principles to visible effects, is a task too arduous for the most acute philosopher. But a little attention to the subject, will shew us that much of the pleasure we enjoy is produced by the combinations of variety; and a constant succession of objects, either new in themselves, or presented to us under different arrangements, and new modifications. These form the most enlivened part of nature's animated scenery, and best exhibit the excellence and beauty of her works. By exciting a constant succession of new ideas, they accelerate the flight of that time which would otherwise appear tedious. By keeping the faculties in employment, their vigour is preserved, and the mind is kept from

sinking into the languor of inactivity. From the hope and expectation of joys yet unexperienced, arise the desire of life, and the efforts to preserve it. As every day brings forth something new to us, we view its approach with pleasure. But, were the present state of nature one undistinguished uniform assemblage of the same objects, these hopes and pleasures could not exist. The journey of life, short as it is, would then become tedious, and present no other prospect than that of a dull unmeaning void.

From ignorance springs the pride of little minds. They presume to find fault with the universal plan, although so small a part of it lies within the limits of their comprehension. What low and groveling sentiments must those entertain of deity, who have the folly and presumption, thus to arraign that wisdom which established and preserves the beautiful order and variety, that continually shine forth in every part of his works.

The impiety of such conduct is no less evident than its folly, when we reflect on our own blindness, and weakness, the state of dependency in which we are placed, and the duties we owe to the Great Author and Source of all. He who is perfect in wisdom as well as power, has established those laws, by which every change in the elements, and revolution of the seasons, take place. It is by his appointment that nature walks her beauteous round, and constantly performs her stated operations. To suppose, then, that the laws of his providence are defective, or that finite beings can amend them, betrays such a degree of impious folly, as we would think it impossible for man to arrive at, did not his own tongue proclaim it. The various vicissitudes of created things excite in us the highest sensations of pleasure as well as pain; and if they sometimes so elevate the billows as to cause a momentary tempest in the ocean of life, they

also

also prevent the still worse consequence of its becoming noxious by stagnation.

The human mind is formed for activity and duration. It cannot, even now, be happy in the torpor of indolent repose: And perhaps, as it rises through the various degrees of perfection, and stages of existence, its activity may for ever increase. The intellectual capacities of man grasp at something beyond the limits of this world; his hopes extend to other regions of existence. The mind cannot, therefore, long dwell with pleasure on a single object or a single theme; but panting after new discoveries in knowledge, is continually in search of a succession numerous as its desires, and endless in their variety. To satisfy these desires, in the present state of being, the boundless variety of nature, and the constant succession of day and night, of summer and winter, of spring time and of harvest, seem to have been appointed. These changes constitute much of our sensitive happiness, and furnish the means of exercising our intellectual powers with improvement and delight. Without this alternate change we should soon feel the languor of satiety become intolerable, and be deprived of a great part of that happiness we now enjoy.

It would be a very proper consideration for those discontented beings, whom God himself cannot please, and whose vain conceit prompts them to "call imperfection what they fancy such," would they reflect whether the remedy they propose, could remove the supposed inconvenience.

It is generally thought, that every successive season has its peculiar advantages, and affords its peculiar pleasures: And the language of wisdom, is, That all unitedly conspire to form the grand aggregate of beauty and felicity enjoyed by sensible and virtuous minds in the present state of being. Addison has

remarked, with equal piety and truth, that, "The creation is a perpetual feast to the mind of a good man." To the truth of this position every good man will assent, not only from its reasonableness, but from the concurring testimony of his own experience.

Whenever he steps aside from the scenes of business and of folly, and contemplates the objects that surround him in their native beauty and order, an endless field of entertainment lies open before him. The vales are clothed with verdure, and enameled with flowers of a thousand forms and hues: The hills crowned with woods, or frowning with a wild magnificence, sublimely rise around him. He sees innumerable tribes of being, beautiful in their order, and happy in their sphere. His ears are saluted with the warbling of birds, the waving of the foliage, and the gurgling of waters. Surrounded thus with beauty, and with harmony, can he fail to partake of the general joy, or hesitate to join in the general tribute of praise to the great and glorious Author of his being? No, surely. Insensible indeed must that mind be, who does not feel itself impelled, by sensations of gratitude and joy, to join the general chorus, and say with Milton,

These are thy glorious works, Parent of good!

Almighty! thine this universal frame,  
Thus wondrous fair.

Every season affords its peculiar pleasures. If spring, arrayed in the gaiety of youth and beauty, affects us with the most lively sensations, and suggests the most enlivening hopes, the summer animates and gives them additional maturity and vigour. The riches and mildness of autumn afford pleasure scarcely inferior to the gayer seasons; while winter furnishes the united satisfaction arising from recollection, and of hope, from reflection and anticipation.

Even winter itself, which discontent has represented as a season of dreary



dreary wretchedness, and barren of all that is pleasing, is replete with real advantages and peculiar beauties. The objects it presents are striking, and afford pleasure to every mind disposed to be pleased with the works of its Creator. Its effects on us are equally beneficial with those of milder seasons. The objects peculiar to that period of the year are no less beautiful in the eye of a philosopher, than the gaiety of spring and the luxuriance of summer. By the frosts and snow the air is purified from those noxious particles and vapours which endanger health; and the earth is impregnated with a sufficient quantity of saline and nitrous matter, to loosen its cohesion, and promote the progress of vegetation. Even the animal system receives the greatest advantage from the return of winter. Languid and enervated by the heat of summer, fatigued with the toils of autumn, the blood and juices circulate too faintly, and the body wants a stimulus to regulate and increase the disorder-

ed state, and interrupted motion of its fluids and organs. But by the sharpness and keen activity of winter air, the solids are braced up to their proper tone, the elastic spring of the fibres is increased, and the whole animal œconomy is restored to order. Hence perhaps it is that the social and domestic pleasures are relished in an higher degree during winter than in any other season. The mind seems more collected within itself, and is capable of acting with greater vigour than in seasons where its attention is broken and divided among a multiplicity of exterior objects.

Thus it appears that every season, as well as object, is beautiful and useful in its order. To contemplate this order and beauty is a noble and beneficial employment. By pursuing it we increase our own happiness, and find ample reason to join in the declaration made by the Almighty, when, having surveyed all his wonderful works, he pronounced them very good.

## THE POVERTY OF THE LEARNED.

*From Curiosities of Literature.*

**T**O mention those who left nothing behind them to satisfy the undertaker, were an endless task.

Agrippa died in a workhouse; Cervantes is supposed to have died with hunger; Camoens was deprived of the necessaries of life, and is believed to have perished in the streets.

The great Tasso was reduced to such a dilemma, that he was obliged to borrow a crown from a friend, to subsist through the week. He alludes to his distress in a pretty sonnet which he addresses to his cat, entreating her to assist him, during the night, with the lustre of her eyes—

"Non avendo candele per iscrivere i suoi versi!"

having no candle by which he could see to write his verses!

The illustrious Cardinal Bentivoglio, the ornament of Italy and of literature, languished, in his old age, in the most distressful poverty; and, having sold his palace to satisfy his creditors, left nothing behind him but his reputation.

Le Sage resided in a little cottage on the borders of Paris, and supplied the world with their most agreeable romances; while he never knew what it was to possess any moderate degree of comfort in pecuniary matters.

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## REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

## BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

TRAVELS IN EUROPE, ASIA, AND AMERICA. *Performed between the Years 1770 and 1779.* By C. P. Thunberg, M. D.

THE author of these Travels is well known by various writings, and particularly by his *Flora Japonica*. His travels were written in his native language, the Swedish, and have been well received on the continent, in the places where they have been translated.

Mr. Thunberg's travels in Europe we shall pass over, and proceed to the period of his embarking in a Dutch East-India ship, in 1791.—His remarks on the voyage to the Cape, are principally confined to the consequences attending the want of care of the Dutch Company's soldiers, who died in vast numbers. Our author's observations at the Cape have been already given to the world by Vaillant, Sparrman, and other voyagers.

Having been liberally treated at the Cape, and enabled to prosecute his travels by the lovers of natural history there and in Holland, our author set sail thence on March 2, 1775, in a ship bound for Batavia, where he arrived on May 18. This place, also, is so well known from the descriptions of voyagers of various countries, that his three months' stay in it affords no important new information. He was received with great kindness by those to whom he was recommended, and obtained the appointment of surgeon to the largest of the ships destined for Japan, with the privilege of accompanying the commissioner in his embassy to the Japanese court, as his physician. He left Batavia on June 20, and arrived off Nagasaki harbour in Japan, August 14. Some curious particulars of the suspicious policy of the Japanese are related,

which does not appear superfluous when they have to deal with Dutchmen; as the following circumstance will prove:

We now perceived a boat coming from shore to meet us. The captain therefore dressed himself in a blue silk coat, trimmed with silver lace, made very large and wide, and stuffed and furnished in front with a large cushion. This coat has for many years past been used for the purpose of smuggling prohibited wares into the country, as the chief and the captain of the ship were the only persons who were exempted from being searched. The captain generally made three trips in this coat every day from the ship to the factory, and was frequently so loaded with goods, that when he went to shore, he was obliged to be supported by two sailors, one under each arm. By these means the captain derived a considerable profit annually from the other officers, whose wares he carried in and out, together with his own, for ready money, which might amount to several thousand rixdollars.

This profitable traffic, however, was now at an end. Strict orders were received from court to search the captain as well as others, and to make him lay aside his furtout:

These strict orders were issued from the court in consequence of a discovery that was made in the year 1772, when the *Burg*, having been abandoned by her crew, had driven ashore on the coast of Japan, and, on discharging her cargo, was found to have on board a great quantity of prohibited goods, which principally belonged to the captain and the chief.

The *Burg* was, as before-mentioned, in 1772, so leaky, in consequence of the severe gales sustained on her passage to this place, that, on a council being held upon her, she was abandoned; and it was considered as so certain that she would sink in a few hours, that she was not set on fire, agreeably to the company's orders in such cases. Notwithstanding this, the ship drove for several days towards the shore of Satsuma, where she was found by the inhabitants, and towed into Nagasaki harbour. The Japanese having thus the ship at their disposal, discovered all her corners and hiding places, as also a great number of chests belonging to the principal officers, which were full of the most prohibited

goods, and marked with their names. They were particularly provoked on finding a chest, belonging to the chief, full of ginseng-root, which is by no means allowed to be imported into the country. The chest therefore, with its contents, was burnt before the gate of the factory.

Besides the disgrace accruing to the chief from being searched, the captain loses a considerable sum yearly that he gained by smuggling for the other officers, and the officers are deprived of the profit they made by their wares.

For many years past the captain was not only equipped with the wide turbot above described, but also wore large and capacious breeches, in which he carried contraband wares ashore. These, however, were suspected, and consequently laid aside; and the coat, the last resource, was now, to the owner's great regret, to be taken off. It was droll enough to see the astonishment which the sudden reduction in the size of our bulky captain excited in the major part of the ignorant Japanese, who before had always imagined that all our captains were actually as fat and lusty as they appeared to be.

The state of the Dutch at Japan, cooped up as close prisoners in a small island, is little favourable to one who wishes to obtain information of the natural and civil history of that singular country. Professor Thunberg, however, appears to have made the best possible use of his situation. He drew up, by means of the interpreters, a vocabulary of the Japanese language, which he has inserted; and he obtained a perfect knowledge of the Dutch commerce here—concerning which we shall copy an instructive passage:

The Dutch and the Chinese are the only nations that are suffered to trade to Japan. The Dutch now send hither annually two ships busy, which are fitted out at Batavia in the month of June, and return at the latter end of the year. The principal articles carried from hence are Japan copper, raw camphor, and lacquered wood-work, porcelain, silks, rice, sakk, and soy, make a very inconsiderable part of the private trade. The copper, which contains more gold, and is finer than any other in the world, is cast into bars six inches long, and a finger thick, flat on one side, and convex on the other, and of a fine bright colour. These bars, amounting to 125 lb. in weight, are put into wooden boxes, and each ship's load consists of six or seven thousand such chests. The articles which the Dutch Com-

pany sent this year were a large quantity of soft sugars, elephants teeth, suppan-wood for dying, also a large quantity of tin and lead, and a small quantity of bar-iron, fine chintzes of various sorts, Dutch cloths of different colours and degrees of fineness, shalloons, silks, cloves, tortoise-shell, China root, and Costus Arabicus. The few articles which were brought in by private persons, consisted of saffron, Venice treacle, Spanish liquorice, rattans, spectacles, looking-glasses, watches, unicorns horns, and the like. For the Company's account was imported a certain sum of money in silver ducatoons, but private persons were not suffered to carry in any coin, although the importation of it might have been attended with some profit.

It appears that the trade of the Dutch, and their profits and privileges, have been latterly much curtailed. Suspicion is, in fact, the leading principle of the Japanese, to which they sacrifice all opportunities of enriching and aggrandizing themselves. They strive to restrain rather than to encourage all connections with foreign nations, and use the utmost care in excluding every thing which may cause an assimilation of themselves with strangers. We are sorry that the events of the world do not suffer us to condemn this policy in proportion to the apparent narrowness of it. It was with much difficulty that our traveller could obtain permission to botanize about Nagasaki, and he was then watched by a train of attendants.

The noted custom in Japan of trampling on the cross is thus described:

A few days after the Japanese new year's day, the horrid ceremony was performed of trampling on such images as represent the cross, and the Virgin Mary with the child. These images, which are made of cast copper, are said to be about twelve inches in length. This ceremony is performed for the purpose of imprinting on every one an abhorrence and hatred of the Christian doctrine, and of the Portuguese, who attempted to propagate that doctrine, and at the same time to discover, whether any remains of it be yet left in any Japanese. The trampling is performed in such places, as were formerly most frequented by the Christians. In the town of Nagasaki, it continues for the space of four days.

days; after which period, the images are carried to the adjacent places, and at last are laid by till the following year. Every one, except the governor and his train, even the smallest child, is obliged to be present at this ceremony; but that the Dutch, as some have been pleased to insinuate, are obliged to trample on these images, is not true. At every place, overseers are present, who assemble the people by rotation in certain houses, calling over every one by his name in due order, and seeing that every thing is duly performed. Adults walk over the images from one side to the other, and children in arms are put with their feet on them.

We moreover learn that, as soon as the Dutch ships arrive, the crews are obliged to deliver up all their Bibles and prayer-books, which are then nailed down in a chest, and are not returned till their departure. Such is the result of an attempt to propagate religion by fraud and force. What an instructive lesson!

In March 1776, the Dutch ambassador set out on his journey to the court of Jedo, accompanied by his secretary, and the Professor as physician, with no other Europeans, but with a train of 200 Japanese as interpreters, servants, &c. The gentlemen travelled in covered chairs carried by men; and every thing relative to their route and lodging was so fixed, that they had not the smallest degree of free-agency left. Hence the journey, though a long and extensive one, could be productive of little proportional information. Several curious particulars, however, which fell under the writer's observation, enliven and diversify his journal. With some of these we shall treat the reader.

The roads of the country are said to be broad, kept in good condition, and even occasionally swept and watered. They are furnished with mile-stones, all measured from one point in the capital, and with direction-posts. The mode of travelling is thus described:

No wheel-carriages are to be found in this country for the service of travellers; therefore, all those that are poor, travel on

foot, and such as are able to pay, either ride on horse-back, or are carried in kangoes or norimons. Instead of their long night-gowns, they often wear trowfers, or linen breeches, which reach down to the calves; and travelling soldiers tie these half-way up their thighs. Such as ride, make, for the most part, a strange figure; as, frequently, several persons are mounted on one horse, sometimes a whole family. In this case, the man is seated on the saddle, with his legs laid forward over the horse's neck; the wife occupies a basket made fast to one side of the saddle, and one or more children are placed in another basket on the other side: a person always walks before to lead the horse by the bridle. People of property are carried in a kind of sedan chairs, that differ from each other in point of size and ornament, according to the different rank of the owners, and, consequently, in point of expence. The worst sort are small, inasmuch that one is obliged to sit in them with one's feet under the seat; they are open on all sides, covered with a small roof, and are carried by two men. The kangoes, more commonly called kagoes, are covered in, and closed on the sides; but they are almost square, and far from being elegant. The largest and handsomest are called norimons, are used by persons in the higher departments of office, and are borne by several men. At the inns in every town and village, there is a number of men who offer their services to the traveller.

These norimons and kango-bearers can carry very heavy burthens to a great distance, and not only travellers but goods, which they carry tied to each end of a pole or bamboo across their shoulders; they generally go a Japanese mile (or league) in an hour, and from ten to twelve of these miles in a day.

The country is highly cultivated; inasmuch that, in many parts, there was scarcely a weed left for the employment of our botanist. The corn is set in rows, in small beds, surrounded by ditches, giving to the whole the appearance of a garden. Rice is sown in grounds, which, by means of a raised border, can be overflowed at pleasure. The population is very great, large villages and towns closely succeeding each other. Some of the towns are very large; but, in estimating their size, we meet with some difficulties. It is said of Miaco, the ancient capital of the empire, the present seat of the Dairi, or ecclesiastical emperor, and

and the largest commercial town in Japan, that it is situated in a plain about four leagues in length, and half a league in breadth. This gives the idea of a place of moderate bigness. On the other hand, Jedo, the capital of the secular emperor, is reported to be of the enormous size of 21 hours walk, or 21 French leagues in circumference; and we are told of a fire in it, which, in the space of a day and a half, laid waste an extent of six leagues by three. The emperor's palace is said to occupy a space of five leagues round. These wonderful dimensions appear incompatible with the view of the whole town, which the author mentions to have taken from a height. How could a tract of building, twenty miles in diameter, be viewed from one spot? The streets are straight and broad; the houses are not more than two stories high, but, as it appears, are contiguous.

The journey to Jedo, including a voyage, took up about seven weeks; the business of the embassy was very soon dispatched, indeed; for it consisted in an audience, at which the ambassador alone was admitted, who made an obeisance at 30 paces distance, and then immediately retired. The annual visit to Jedo is therefore rather an expensive burthen, than an honour, to the Dutch; and the Chinese merchants are happy to be excused from it.

The profession of the author gained him many visits from the learned men and physicians of the capital. Astronomy appears to be the favourite object of the former: but they are not yet arrived at the skill of calculating an eclipse to any accuracy. The medical tribe are ignorant of every thing which we think fundamental in physic; and, notwithstanding the very laudable pains which the author took to instruct them, during his month's stay, we cannot but think that he presumed too much on their improvement, when he left them a

quantity of corrosive sublimate for the cure of the *lues venerea*.

The remainder of the volume describes the return from Jedo, and gives a summary of the author's observations on the country, the people, their manners, language, arts, &c.

We shall trespass no farther in quotation than to copy the description of the persons of the Japanese; for, in exteriors, we have full confidence in our author:

The people of this nation are well made, active, free and easy in their motions, with stout limbs, although their strength is not to be compared to that of the northern inhabitants of Europe. The men are of the middling size, and in general not very corpulent; yet I have seen some that were sufficiently fat. They are of a yellowish colour all over, sometimes bordering on brown, and sometimes on white. The lower class of people, who in summer, when at work, lay bare the upper part of their bodies, are sun-burnt, and consequently brown. Ladies of distinction, who seldom go out in the open air without being covered, are perfectly white. It is by their eyes that, like the Chinese, these people are distinguishable. These organs have not that rotundity which those of other nations exhibit, but are oblong, small, and are sunk deeper in the head, in consequence of which these people have almost the appearance of being pink-eyed. In other respects their eyes are dark brown, or rather black, and the eye-lids form in the great angle of the eye a deep furrow, which makes the Japanese look as if they were sharp-sighted, and discriminates them from other nations. The eye-brows are also placed somewhat higher. Their heads are in general large, and their necks short, their hair black, thick, and shining, from the use they make of oils. Their noses, although not flat, are yet rather thick and short.

As to the Professor's account of the genius and disposition of the Japanese, we must confess that it appears to us so utterly void of philosophical precision and sagacity, that we shall pass it over; though, in fact, information on those points is the most valuable which a traveller can bring home. What can we think of a writer who tells us that "liberty is the soul of the Japanese," without giving us a single fact to

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show that they have the least idea of such a blessing? while, on the contrary, every circumstance announces despotism, restraint, and profound submission of body and mind. It is probable that the severe and exact administration of the laws, equally bearing on all classes, may protect the lower from the oppression of the higher; and so far one of the great purposes of civil society is answered. A populous and well-cultivated country, possessed of many of the conveniences of life, announces regularity, order, and a mild system of government. The Japanese are probably in as happy a condition as man, without the cultivation of the higher and nobler qualities of his nature, can easily attain.

Respecting the subject of natural history, which the reader will in course connect with the name of Thunberg, the author observes in his preface—"I have carefully avoided introducing into this narrative any prolix descriptions (and particularly in Latin) of animals or plants, for fear of tiring out the patience of the generality of my readers; but, for the use of botanists and zoologists, I have thought proper to publish them in separate works (*Flora Japonica*, &c.); still, however, I have taken care, as far as it might be done, to distinguish them by their proper and genuine names."

Notwithstanding that our opinion of Professor Thunberg, as a voyage-writer, is not very high, we can safely recommend his work as containing many new and curious facts derived from his own observation, and bearing all the marks of veracity. With regard to the translation, we conceive it to be on the whole faithful, and adequate to the original, though there are various passages in which the sense is manifestly mistaken or confused. A very unpleasant inelegance, in the journal part of the work, is the almost constant use of the past time for the

present—were, had, grew, instead of are, have, grow, &c. by which the meaning is in some places quite altered. This fault we have before seen, particularly in translations from the northern languages.

The few plates which occur in these volumes, and the execution of the typographical part, do not merit particular commendation; and the want of maps is a material deficiency.

THE HISTORY OF THE ORIGIN, PROGRESS, AND TERMINATION OF THE AMERICAN WAR. By C. Stedman. In 2 Vols. 4to.

[Continued from page 230.]

The author commences his second volume with considering the effects of the surrender of Saratoga.

The surrender of Saratoga forms a memorable era in the history of the American war. Although the success of the British arms had not been so brilliant, nor the progress made in repressing the spirit of revolt so considerable, as either the magnitude of the force employed under Sir William Howe, or the military character of that general, gave reason to expect; still, upon the whole, until the unfortunate expedition from Canada, the advantages that had been gained were on the side of Great-Britain.

Whenever the British and American armies had been opposed to each other in the field, the superiority of the former was conspicuous in every thing, and, in general, even in numbers. The Americans themselves, impressed with an opinion of their own inferiority, were dispirited; and it was with reluctance that they ever attempted to engage the British troops upon equal, or even nearly equal, terms. But so uncommon an event as the capture of a whole army of their enemies animated them with fresh ardour, invigorated the exertions of the congress, lessened in the mind of the American soldier the high opinion which he had entertained of British valour and discipline, and inspired him with a juster confidence in himself.

The consequences, however, which this event produced in Europe were of still greater moment. In Great-Britain the most sanguine expectations had been raised from the Canada expedition, the rapid success of which, in its first stages, seemed to promise the most fortunate issue. A junction of the northern army with that at New-York was confidently expected; and it was hoped



hoped that by this junction a decisive blow would be given to the rebellion, by cutting off the northern from the middle and southern colonies. The British nation, elevated with such hopes, and encouraged to cherish them by the first intelligence from Canada, which brought an account of the almost instantaneous reduction of Ticonderoga, and the destruction or capture of the provincial naval force in Lake Champlain, suffered proportionate disappointment upon hearing of the ultimate failure of the expedition and the total loss of the army. But if the disappointment of the nation was great, that of the ministry was still greater; and in a fit of despondency, it would seem, they determined, for the sake of peace, and of getting rid of a troublesome and expensive war, to give up every thing for which they had originally contended. To the surprise of all, and to the no small mortification of those who had hitherto zealously supported the measures of administration, the minister in the month of February introduced two bills into the House of Commons, which were passed through both houses of parliament with great dispatch, and received the royal assent on the 11th of March. By the first of these the duty payable on tea imported into America, which was the original cause of dispute, was repealed, and a legislative declaration was made, that the king and parliament of Great-Britain would not in future impose any tax or duty whatsoever payable in the colonies, except only such as should be necessary for the regulation of trade, and in such case that the nett produce of the duty so imposed should be applied to the particular use of that colony in which it should be collected, in the same manner as other duties collected under the authority of the assemblies. By the other of these acts, authority was given to the king to appoint commissioners with full powers to treat, consult, and agree, with any assemblies of men whatsoever in America, and even with individuals, concerning any grievances existing in the government of any of the colonies, or in the laws of Great-Britain extending to them, concerning any contributions to be furnished by the colonies, and concerning any other regulations which might be for the common good of both countries; with a proviso, however, that such an agreement should not be binding until ratified by parliament. But in the following instances the commissioners were to be invested with absolute power, exercisable however according to their discretion, for proclaiming a cessation of hostilities by sea and land, for opening an intercourse with the mother-country, for suspending the operation of all acts of parliament relating to the North American colonies passed since the 10th of February, 1763, and for granting pardons to all descriptions of persons.

Never, perhaps, was there a moment during the whole of the British history, in which the nation had greater cause of mortification than at the time of passing these acts: and it will be difficult to defend the ministers of that day against the imputation of either want of wisdom or want of firmness. If what was now proposed was a right measure, it ought to have been adopted at first, and before the sword was drawn: on the other hand, if the claims of the mother-country over her colonies were originally worth contending for, the strength and resources of the nation were not yet so far exhausted as to justify ministers in relinquishing them without a further struggle. But such was the disappointment in consequence of the failure of the expedition from Canada, and so great an alteration had it produced in the opinions of those who directed the councils of the nation, that the concessions which had been repeatedly refused to the petitions of the colonists were now to be offered to them with arms in their hands; and they were even to be courted and intreated to accept of them.

This moment of dependence, humiliation, and debasement, was seized by the court of Versailles to give a fatal blow to the overgrown power of her rival. Ever since the commencement of the rebellion, the American colonists had been encouraged in their revolt by secret assurances of assistance from the court of France, and by supplies of money, arms, and ammunition, clandestinely conveyed to them. The French were in the mean time making preparations; and their original design was, probably, to abstain from an open declaration, until Great-Britain and her colonies had mutually weakened each other in their civil contention. But the disaster which happened to General Burgoyne's army, and the consequent conciliatory measures about to be adopted by the British cabinet, at last obliged them to throw off the mask. They knew that the Americans, notwithstanding their success at Saratoga, still laboured under very great difficulties; and that, for want of internal resources, whilst their foreign trade was almost annihilated by the British cruisers, it was impossible for them, without assistance, to keep a respectable army in the field for any length of time; and they dreaded, lest, under such unpromising circumstances, they should be induced to accept the very liberal terms which they knew were to be offered to them. To prevent this, and to defeat the effect of the conciliatory measures about to be adopted by the British cabinet, two treaties were now entered into between the French king and the thirteen revolted colonies; one of commerce, and another of defensive alliance; which were finally signed at Paris, the 6th of February, in the year 1778, by the chevalier Gerard, in behalf of



the French king; and by Dr. Franklin, Silas Deane, and Arthur Lee, in behalf of the American colonies. The first of these, as its title imports, was intended to regulate the commerce to be carried on between the countries of the contracting parties; and the principal object of the other was to secure the sovereignty and independence of the revolted colonies; it being stipulated, that if a war in consequence of this treaty should break out between Great-Britain and France, the two contracting parties should mutually assist each other according to their power and ability, and that peace should not be made without the consent of both, nor until the sovereignty and independence of the colonies, both in matters of government and commerce, should be either expressly or tacitly acknowledged by the king of Great-Britain.

The following is Mr. Stedman's account of the scheme formed by General Arnold for delivering an important post into the hands of the British army, which occasioned the lamented fate of Adjutant-General Major André.

Whilst General Washington was absent from his army upon this service, a deep-laid scheme was formed by one of his own officers, for delivering up to Sir Henry Clinton the strong post of West Point, in the high lands upon the North River, the possession of which would have nearly cut off all communication between the northern and middle colonies. The officer engaged in this design was the famous General Arnold, whose services in the cause of America had been of the most meritorious kind, and whose brilliant actions in the field justly raised him to superior notice and regard. After the evacuation of Philadelphia by the British troops in the year 1778, he was appointed to command the American garrison that took possession of it; and while he acted in that capacity, had the misfortune to disgust many of the inhabitants, and even to fall under the displeasure of congress. He lived expensively, and, as was supposed, considerably beyond his stated income; but he was at the same time concerned in trading speculations, and had shares in several privateers; and upon the profits expected from those adventures, he probably relied, as means of enabling him to keep up the state and style of life he had assumed; he had also claims against the public to a considerable amount; and upon the payment of them he depended as a fund to satisfy the immediate demands of his creditors, who were beginning to become importunate. But the trading speculations in which he had engaged proved unproductive; his privateers were unsuccess-

ful; and a considerable portion of his demand against the public was cut off, by the commissioners appointed to examine his accounts. From the decision of the commissioners, General Arnold appealed to the congress, who appointed a committee of their own members to revise the sentence: but the committee of congress were even less favourable to his views than the commissioners, from whose decision he had appealed. They reported that the balance already allowed by the commissioners was more than General Arnold was entitled to receive.

So many disappointments could not fail to ruffle a temper less irritable than General Arnold's: recollecting his former services, he gave full scope to his resentment, and complained of ill-usage and ingratitude in terms better calculated to provoke than to mollify, and such as were peculiarly offensive to congress. His enemies availed themselves of his indifference to swell the tide of popular clamour which already ran strongly against him. A court-martial was appointed to examine into his conduct during his command in Philadelphia, and by the sentence of that board it was in general terms reprehended, and himself subjected to the mortification of receiving a reprimand from General Washington.

From this moment it is supposed that Arnold formed the design of quitting the American service, and joining the British; and only delayed the execution of his purpose until an opportunity should offer of performing some essential service to the power which he was about to join, that might render his accession of more importance. A correspondence was opened with Sir Henry Clinton: the delivering up the post at West Point, where Arnold now commanded, was the service he proposed to perform; and the interval of General Washington's absence, when he went to confer with the French commanders, was the time appointed for finishing the negotiation. To facilitate the means of carrying on the previous correspondence, the Vulture sloop of war was stationed in the North River, at such a distance from West Point as to excite no suspicion, but near enough to serve for the intended communication; and as General Arnold required a confidential person to treat with, Major André, aid-du-camp to Sir Henry Clinton, and adjutant-general of the British army, undertook to confer with him, and bring the negotiation to a conclusion. For this purpose he repaired on board the Vulture sloop. At night, in pursuance of a previous arrangement, a boat from the shore carried him to the beach, where he met General Arnold; and day-light approaching before the business on which they had met was finally adjusted, Major André

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was told that he must be conducted to a place of safety, and lie concealed until the following night, when he might return on board the Vulture without the danger of being discovered. The beach where the first conference was held was without, but the place of safety to which Major André was conducted to lie concealed during the day, was within the American out-ports, against his intention, and without his knowledge. Here, however, he remained with General Arnold during the day; and at night, the boatmen refusing to carry him on board the Vulture, because she had shifted her position during the day, in consequence of a gun being brought to bear upon her from the shore, he was reduced to the necessity of endeavouring to make his way to New-York by land. Laying aside his regimentals, which he had hitherto worn, he put on a plain suit of cloaths, and receiving a pass from General Arnold, under the assumed name of John Anderson, as if he had been sent down the country on public business, he set out on his return to New-York. His passport secured him from interruption at the American out-ports; and he had already passed them all, and thought himself out of danger, when three American militia-men, who had been sent out to patrol near the road along which he travelled, suddenly springing from the woods, seized the bridle of his horse and stopped him. The suddenness of the surprise seems to have deprived Major André of his wonted presence of mind; and, although a man of the greatest address, he was entrapped by the rude simplicity of clowns. Having enquired from whence they were, and being answered, "From below;" "And so," said he, "am I." It was not long before he discovered his mistake; but too late, it would appear, to remove the impression which his first answer had made. The men who had made him prisoner searched him for papers, and having taken from his boot a packet, in the hand-writing of General Arnold, determined to carry him without delay to their commanding officer. It was in vain that he offered them a purse of gold and his watch, to suffer him to pass: his promises of an ample provision, and getting them promoted, if they would accompany him to New-York, were equally unavailing. The unfortunate André, after these efforts to regain his liberty, seems to have been regardless of what might be his own fate, and was only anxious to save General Arnold. Before the commanding officer of the militia he continued to personate the supposed John Anderson, and requested that a messenger might be sent to General Arnold to acquaint him with his detention. A messenger being accordingly dispatched, and sufficient time having elapsed for General Arnold to make his escape, he no

longer disguised his real name, and avowed himself to be Major André, adjutant-general of the British army: he also wrote a letter to General Washington, in his real name, acquainting him that he was his prisoner, and accounting for the disguise which necessity had obliged him to assume. The message sent to General Arnold, announcing the detention of John Anderson, was sufficient notice to him to provide for his own safety: he quitted West Point without delay, got on board the Vulture sloop, and in her proceeded to New-York.

In the mean time General Washington returned from his interview with the French commanders, and being informed of what had passed during his absence, together with Arnold's escape, he reinforced the garrison of West Point with a strong detachment from his army, and appointed a board of general officers, to enquire into and report upon the case of Major André. The candid, open, manly, and ingenious explanation of his conduct, given by Major André, before the board of officers, impressed with admiration and esteem even his enemies, who were about to shed his blood. Dismissing from his thoughts all personal consideration of danger, he was only anxious that the transaction in which he had been engaged, shewed as it was by the intervention of unfortunate circumstances, might be cleared from obscurity, and appear in its genuine colours, at least with respect to his intention, which was incapable of swerving from the paths of honour. But the board of officers fixing their attention upon the naked fact of his being in disguise within their lines, without perhaps duly considering the unfortunate train of incidents which unexpectedly and almost unavoidably, led him into that situation, were of opinion that he came under the description, and ought to suffer the punishment, of a spy.

The concern felt at New-York, in consequence of the capture of Major André, was in the mean time inconceivably great: his gallantry as an officer, and amiable demeanour as a man, had gained him not only the admiration, but the affection, of the whole army; and the uncertainty of his fate filled them with the deepest anxiety. Sir Henry Clinton, whose esteem and regard he enjoyed in an eminent degree, immediately opened a correspondence with General Washington, by means of a flag of truce, and urged every motive which justice, policy, or humanity, could suggest, to induce a remission of the sentence. Finding his letters ineffectual, he sent out General Robertson, with a flag, to confer upon the subject with any officer that should be appointed by General Washington. An interview took place between General Robertson and General Green, who had been president of the court-martial. But all

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efforts to save the unfortunate André were unavailing: his doom was irrevocably fixed. The greatness of the danger which the American army had escaped by the discovery of Arnold's plot before it was ripe for execution, seems to have extinguished in the breast of the inexorable Washington every spark of humanity that remained. Although entreated by a most pathetic letter from Major André, written on the day previous to his execution, to change the mode of his death from that of a common malefactor to one more correspondent to the feelings of a soldier, he would not condescend to grant even this inconsiderable boon to the supplication of his unfortunate prisoner: and on the 2d day of October, this accomplished young officer met his fate, in the manner prescribed by his sentence, with a composure, serenity, and fortitude, which astonished the beholders, and excited those emotions of sympathy that would have been more honourably and humanely exercised in averting than lamenting his fate.

Of the celebrated investment of York Town, which decided the contest between America and Great-Britain, we have the following narration:

Although the damage done to the Americans by the attack upon New London was immense, it was not of sufficient importance to stop General Washington in his progress to Virginia. The enterprize in which he was now engaged was of the utmost moment. If successful, it would have a material influence in shortening the duration of the war, and was not therefore to be abandoned for any partial consideration whatever. The combined armies, after passing through Philadelphia, marched to the head of Elk River, which falls into the Chesapeake at its interior extremity. Transports from the French fleet were sent thither to receive them, and by the 25th of September the whole were landed in the neighbourhood of Williamsburgh, and joined the troops under the Marquis de la Fayette and Monsieur de St. Simon. General Washington, and the Count de Rochambeau, with their suites, left the army upon its arrival at the head of the Elk, and proceeded by land to Williamsburgh, where they arrived on the 14th. They immediately repaired on board the *Ville de Paris*, to wait upon the Count de Grasse; and at this meeting a council of war was held, in which the plan of their future operations was finally settled and agreed upon.

About this time a party of North Carolina loyalists, to the number of six hundred and forty, under the command of Macneil,

a colonel of militia, surprised Hillsborough, surrounded a church where a body of continentalists were stationed, and took about two hundred prisoners, among whom was Mr. Burke, the governor of North Carolina, his council, two colonels, four or five captains, five subalterns, together with several other men of rank; and released sixty men that were in gaol on account of their fidelity and attachment to the British government. On their return they were attacked by a body of about three hundred of the enemy, who lay in ambush near the banks of the Rain Creek. An action took place, in which the loyalists suffered the loss of their Colonel Macneil, and Captain Doud, killed; and several other officers, with twenty privates, wounded; but in which, now under the command of Macdougald, they forced the enemy to leave the field, with the loss of one colonel and one major killed, and thirty-seven rank and file wounded. The loyalists then proceeded on their march with governor Burke and the other prisoners, till they arrived, on the 17th, at a place called Raft Swamp, where they were joined by a small party of friends under Colonel Kay. Before their junction with this party they were so much reduced as scarcely to be sufficient for guarding the prisoners. They had offered to liberate Burke on his parole; but he would not accept this favour, hoping to be retaken by General Butler, who was marching with his army with all possible speed, down Cape Fear River in pursuit of the loyalists. Soon afterwards Macdougald with his party arrived at Wilmington, and delivered his prisoners to Major Craig, the governor.

Whilst that powerful combination between the French and Americans was forming, Earl Cornwallis took every opportunity of communicating to the commander in chief at New-York the danger of his situation, in consequence of the French fleet having taken possession of the bay: and from him he received assurances, bearing date the 6th of September, that he would join him with four thousand troops, who were then embarked, as soon as the admiral should be of opinion that he might venture. He was also informed that Admiral Digby was upon the coast, and daily expected to arrive, with a reinforcement of ships and troops. In the mean time the troops under his lordship were busily employed in fortifying York, the works at which having been begun later than those on the opposite side, and also being more extensive, were not in the same state of forwardness. It has been suggested, that about this period, that is, between the time of the junction of the French reinforcement from the West-Indies with the Marquis de la Fayette, and the arrival of the considerable army from the head of the Elk, Lord Cornwallis ought to have attacked the

former of these corps after their junction, and while they lay at Williamsburgh, and that he had a sufficient force to have attempted it with every prospect of success. But Lord Cornwallis's character for enterprise, of which his conduct during all his campaigns in America affords the strongest evidence, forbids even a suspicion that any opportunity of striking a blow at the enemy was lost, which could have been embraced, consistently with the orders under which he acted, the instructions he had received, and the intelligence which had been from time to time forwarded to him. It has also been said, that if this measure was not thought eligible, in that case he ought to have abandoned York Town, and returned with his army to South Carolina. But it ought to be recollected, that, some little time before this, he had been made acquainted with the commander in chief's design of commencing solid operations in the Chesapeake, as soon as the season of the year would permit: and if he had at this time withdrawn his army from Virginia, that plan of operation, which he also knew was agreeable to the wishes of the British ministry, must have been entirely frustrated. With this information before him, and with even a conditional assurance of relief, he would scarcely have been justifiable in taking a step that would have been attended with such a consequence, except under circumstances of a more pressing necessity than yet existed. Besides this, by his march to Carolina he must have abandoned and given up to the enemy a considerable quantity of artillery, the ships of war, transports, provisions, stores, and hospitals with the sick and wounded. It seems, therefore, under all the circumstances, that such a step at that time could not have been justified: and had he attacked the Marquis de la Fayette, previously to the arrival of Washington and Recharbeau, he must have greatly impeded the progress of the works at York, by drawing off the troops employed upon them, from whose unremitting labour during the month of September, they were in greater forwardness by the time the combined army assembled at Williamsburgh than could have been expected, although they were not even then nearly finished. The works constructing for the defence of York were of two kinds, the one for the immediate defence of the town, and the other a range of redoubts and field-works at some distance from it, calculated to impede the enemy's approach.

In this untoward position the British troops were stationed, when the combined army of French and Americans appeared in sight of York, on the 28th of September, having marched from Williamsburgh that morning. They encamped that night about two miles from the works, and the

next morning were seen extending themselves towards the left of the British army, but at a cautious distance. The latter wished to be attacked, but the enemy appeared disposed to proceed with great circumspection. Nothing material happened on this day, either within or without the lines, until the evening, when an express arrived with dispatches from the commander in chief at New-York, bearing date the 24th of September. In these Earl Cornwallis was informed, that at a council held that day, between the general and flag officers, it was agreed that upwards of five thousand troops should be embarked on board the king's ships; that every exertion would be made, both by the army and navy, to relieve him; and that the fleet, consisting of twenty-three sail of the line, might be expected to sail by the 6th of October: and in a postscript his lordship was advertised, that Admiral Digby, with three more ships of the line, had just arrived at Sandy Hook. Upon the receipt of these dispatches, Lord Cornwallis in the night withdrew his army within the works of the town, in full expectation of being able to hold both the posts of York and Gloucester until the promised relief arrived, provided it came within any reasonable time. The works abandoned by the British troops were occupied the next day by detachments from the combined army: the same day the town was regularly invested; and in the night the enemy began to break ground, the French making their approaches on the right of it, and the Americans on the left, the extremities of the two armies meeting at a morass in front of the center of the British works. The same day the Duke de Lauzun, with his legion, and a body of Virginia militia under General Weedon, took a position in front of the other British post at Gloucester Town, and kept it from that time blockaded. In the night of the 6th of October, the enemy made their first parallel at the distance of six hundred yards from the British works, and by the afternoon of the 9th, their batteries were completed, which immediately opened upon the town. From this time an incessant cannonade was kept up: and the continued discharge of shot and shells from a number of heavy cannon and mortars, in a few days damaged the unfinished works on the left of the town, silenced the guns that were mounted on them, and occasioned the loss of a great number of men. In the night of the 11th, the enemy, with indefatigable perseverance, opened their second parallel three hundred yards nearer to the works than the first. In the mean time the garrison did every thing in their power to interrupt them in their work, by opening new embrasures for guns, and keeping up a constant fire with all the howitzers and small

small mortars they could man; and about this time, the loss of men sustained by the enemy was more considerable than at any other period during the siege. They were particularly annoyed and impeded in their approaches by two redoubts, advanced about three hundred yards in front of the British works. These they resolved to assault; and to excite a spirit of emulation, the reduction of the one was committed to the French, of the other to the Americans. The attempt was made in the night of the 14th, and in both instances succeeded; and by the unwearied labour of the enemy both redoubts were included in their second parallel before the morning. The British troops having been weakened by sickness, as well as by the fire of the besiegers, Lord Cornwallis could not venture to make so large forties as to hope from them much success: but at the present crisis some attempt of that sort became necessary, in order to retard the opening of the enemy's batteries in their second parallel, against the fire of which, it was foreseen that the British works on the left, already half-ruined, could not stand many hours. A sortie of three hundred and fifty men, under the direction of Lieutenant-colonel Abercrombie, was therefore ordered against two of the enemy's batteries, that seemed in the greatest state of forwardness. A detachment of the guards, with the eightieth company of grenadiers, under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Lake, of the guards, was ordered to attack the one; and a detachment of light-infantry, under the command of Major Armstrong, was to attack the other. The two detachments accordingly sallied forth a little before day-break, of the 16th of October, forced the redoubts that covered the batteries, spiked eleven heavy cannon, and after killing or wounding about one hundred of the French troops, who had the guard of this part of the trenches, returned within the lines with very little loss. But this action, although honourable to the officers and soldiers who performed it, yielded little public advantage. The cannon, having been hastily spiked, were soon rendered fit for service; and before the evening, the whole battery and parallels appeared to be nearly complete. At this time not a gun could be shewn by the garrison on that side of the works attacked by the enemy, and the shells were nearly expended; Lord Cornwallis was therefore reduced to the necessity of either preparing to surrender, or attempting to escape with the greatest part of the army; and he determined to attempt the latter, on the Gloucester side of the river, where Brigadier de Choise now commanded, and lay with a small corps at some distance, in front of the works. It was determined that he should be attacked before break of day by the whole British

force; and the success of the attack was not in the least doubted. The horses taken from him (for he had a considerable corps of cavalry) would in part mount the infantry, and the rest might be supplied by others collected on the road. As no baggage was to be carried, his lordship intended to have proceeded to the upper country by rapid marches, leaving his future route uncertain, until he came opposite to the fords of the great rivers; when he meant to have turned off suddenly to the northward, upon a supposition that the enemy's measures would be principally directed to prevent his escape to the southward. After turning to the northward, it was his lordship's design to force his way through Maryland, Pennsylvania, and the Jerseys, and join the commander in chief at New-York. Undoubtedly the attempt was beyond calculation hazardous, and the issue totally precarious; but, if it afforded even a glimpse of hope, it was preferable to an immediate surrender.

In pursuance of this design, the light infantry, the greatest part of the guards, and part of the 23d regiment, were embarked in boats, and transported to the Gloucester side of the river before midnight, when a violent storm arose, which not only prevented the boats from returning, but drove them a considerable distance down the river. The passage of the rest of the troops was now become impracticable, and, in the absence of the boats, those that had already crossed could not possibly return. In this divided state of the British force, the enemy's batteries opened at break of day: fortunately the boats returned soon afterwards, and brought back in the course of the forenoon the troops that had been carried over in the night, without much loss, although the passage between York and Gloucester was greatly exposed to the enemy's fire. In the mean time, by the force of the enemy's cannonade, the British works were tumbling into ruin: not a gun could be fired from them, and only one eight-inch and little more than an hundred cohorn shells remained. They were in many places affailable already; and if the same fire continued a few hours longer, it was the opinion of the engineer and principal officers of the army, that it would be madness to attempt to maintain them with the present garrison, exhausted by the fatigue of constant watching and unremitting duty, and reduced in its numbers by sickness even more than by the enemy's fire. Under such circumstances his lordship, on the 17th of October, unwilling to expose the remains of his gallant army to the danger of an assault, which, from the enemy's numbers, and the ruined state of the works, could not fail to be successful, made proposals for a capitulation. The terms were adjusted in the course of the next day,



which, though not altogether agreeable to Earl Cornwallis's wishes or proposals, were nevertheless such as his desperate situation obliged him to accept; and on the 19th the posts of York and Gloucester were surrendered to General Washington, as commander in chief of the combined army; and the ships of war, transports, and other vessels, to the Count de Grasse, as commander of the French fleet. By the articles of capitulation, the garrison of York and Gloucester, including the officers of the navy and seamen of every denomination, were to surrender as prisoners of war to the combined army: the land force to remain prisoners to the United States, and the seamen to the most Christian King. The garrison was to be allowed the same honours as the garrison of Charlestown had obtained when it surrendered to Sir Henry Clinton. The officers and soldiers were permitted to retain their private property; and the officers had liberty to proceed upon parole either to Europe, or any maritime port on the continent of America in the possession of the British troops. Although the article for exempting from punishment such of the natives, or other inhabitants of America, as had joined the British army, and were then at York, was rejected by General Washington, the same thing was in effect obtained in a different form, by the permission granted to Earl Cornwallis to send the Bonetta sloop of war to New-York with his dispatches without being searched, and with as many soldiers on board as he should think fit, so that they were accounted for in any future exchange. By this permission he was tacitly empowered to send off such of the inhabitants as were obnoxious to punishment; which accordingly was done.

By the surrender of the posts of York and Gloucester, the Americans became possessed of a large train of artillery, many of which were of brass, together with a considerable quantity of arms, ammunition, warlike stores, and provisions; and to the French were delivered up one frigate, two ships of war of twenty guns, and a number of transports and other vessels. The *Charon*, of forty-four guns, and another ship of war, were set on fire by the enemy's shells, and destroyed during the siege. The combined army consisted of seven thousand French, and nearly the same number of continental soldiers, and about five thousand militia. On the day previous to the surrender, the rank and file of the garrisons of York and Gloucester amounted to five thousand nine hundred and fifty; but so great was the number of the sick and wounded, that only four thousand and seventeen were reported fit for duty.

In the mean time Sir Henry Clinton had draughted from the garrison at New-York a corps of seven thousand of his best troops,

with which he proposed to embark on board the king's ships, and impatiently waited for the moment when the fleet would be ready to sail. He had already informed Lord Cornwallis, that it was hoped the fleet would "start from New-York about the 5th of October;" and afterwards, from the assurances given him by the admiral, that it might pass the bar by the 12th, if the winds permitted, and no unforeseen accident happened: but the fleet did not finally leave Sandy Hook until the 19th, the day on which Lord Cornwallis surrendered. The commander in chief embarked with the troops, as he had expected, and the event of the siege not long then known, both the navy and army put to sea with a determined resolution to make the most vigorous efforts for the relief of Earl Cornwallis, and with confident hopes that those efforts would be attended with the most complete success. It was, therefore, with extreme mortification, when they arrived off the Capes of Virginia, on the 24th, that they received accounts which led them to suspect that Earl Cornwallis had already capitulated. They however remained off the mouth of the Chesapeake until the 29th. The intelligence received during this interval was so uniform in its tendency, that no doubts at last remained about the issue of the siege. It was apparent, that the British armament had arrived too late to afford Earl Cornwallis the promised relief; and as that relief was the sole object of the expedition, the admiral determined to return to New-York. The British fleet at this time consisted of twenty-five ships of the line, two fifty-gun ships, and eight frigates; that of the French amounted to thirty-six sail of the line, besides frigates. Unfortunately, the letter written by Earl Cornwallis to the commander in chief, acquainting him with the surrender of the posts of York and Gloucester, and narrating the causes that led to that event, with the motives that influenced his own conduct, produced a difference between them, which terminated in an appeal to the public. Such was the fate of the army; which, if success were the uniform result of merit, would have undoubtedly shared a different fate: if bravery in the field, and patient, and even cheerful, submission to fatigue, inclement skies, and the want not only of the comforts, but sometimes even of the necessaries of life, have any claim to esteem and admiration. It has been observed, and justly, that in almost all the general actions to the northward, the troops under Sir William Howe were superior in number to those under General Washington; but, on the contrary, in every general action to the southward, the enemy greatly outnumbered the British either under Lord Cornwallis or Lord Rawdon.

## POLITICAL REGISTER.

*Debates in the British Parliament, continued.*

**I**N the House of Commons, on Friday, Jan. 31, in a committee of supply, Mr. Pitt moved, that the treaty concluded with the King of Sardinia be referred to that committee.

Mr. Fox opposed this—as the treaty was unprecedented in its stipulations; for by it this country is bound not to make peace with France, until Savoy is restored to Sardinia—thereby losing to this country whatever adventitious circumstances might occur—we are also bound to subsidize his Sardinian majesty with 200,000*l.* per annum, although we never have, nor can, have ought in return. He therefore highly disapproved of giving so much for nothing, and thus paying a king for defending his own country.

Mr. Powys and Mr. Rider supported the treaty, as useful and necessary in the common cause against France.

Mr. Canning made his maiden speech. He warmly supported ministers and the war. He did not envy those gentlemen who took such pains to poison the fair hopes of their country. When they had taken upon them such an ungrateful talk, they should have gone through with it, and pointed out what kind of a peace we could obtain. If the ground upon which they should recommend an application for peace was the ill success of our arms, was it probable that the French would comply with our requisitions? It would be our duty to demand the disorganization of their armies. But they would triumphantly say to us, "We want from you your constitution: the people of England are a deluded people, and they must be made free." Such would be their answer to us! He then entered into an examination of the merits of the war, and the several objections that

had at various times been made against it. It had been said, that the present was a war of passions. Before that assertion could be maintained, it was necessary to prove that self-preservation was a passion. But, admitting that it was a war of passions, they were rather those passions which must naturally have been roused in every one's breast, from the indignation we must feel at an unjust and violent aggression. As another objection against the war, it had been asked, "What are we to gain by it?" This would have been a fair question, if there was any similarity between the present and any former wars, if it had been entered into for the purpose of enforcing the fulfilment of a treaty, or the acquisition of a certain portion of territory. If the best defence that could be made in favour of the war, was the advantages we might gain in the end, he should be ashamed to defend it. To resist the dangers that threatened us externally and internally was much more important than any other consideration.

Mr. Sheridan said, the empress of all the Russias, had agreed with us, not to lay down her arms till the Democrats were punished, though she had forgotten as yet to take them up.

Mr. Pitt said that his Sardinian majesty's army had been considerably reduced by fatigue and sickness, but that he gave all the support in his power.

The treaty was then referred to the committee, and a vote agreed to, for making good the subsidy.

Mr. Sheridan asked if Lord Hood or General O'Hara were to receive any additional emoluments in consequence of their appointment as commissioners at Toulon—Mr. Pitt answered in the negative.

Major Maitland wished to know whether

whether there were any French officers in quality of aids de camp to Lord Moira?—He was answered in the negative.

A long conversation again ensued relating to the protection of our trade—in which Admiral Gardner, one of the lords of the admiralty, recapitulated the circumstances attending each convoy, and shewed that the merchants property were protected, and that they were satisfied—after which the house was resumed, on which

Mr. Pitt called the attention of the house to a subject of great novelty and delicacy. He had understood, from some merchants of eminence, that the persons exercising the powers of government of France had decreed, That the property possessed by Frenchmen in the funds of foreign countries, was put, according to their usual jargon, in a state of requisition. They were to give to the agents of the Convention, bills of exchange upon the countries, in the funds of which their property might be, and they were to be paid for those bills in assignats at par. Bankers were ordered by the decree to declare what they might know of the affairs of persons who had money in their hands. He would not exactly rely upon his information; but if the house would have the goodness to adjourn till to-morrow, he would enquire further.

On Monday, Feb. 3, the Solicitor General moved for leave to bring in a bill, “to prevent the payment for a certain time, of effects or money, in the hands of subjects of Great Britain, the property of French subjects, to the orders, &c. of the persons exercising the powers of government in France, &c. and for restoring the same to the individual owners.”

Mr. Pitt seconded the motion, which meeting the concurrence of the house, the bill was ordered to be brought in accordingly.

The house in a committee of ways and means, voted, on the motion of Mr. Rose, the land and malt taxes, in the usual manner.

The house resolved into a committee of supply, and Mr. Hobart having taken the chair,

It was ordered, on the motion of Lord Arden, that the sums of 558,021l. and 547,310l. should be granted to his majesty, for the ordinary and extraordinary expences of the navy, for the year 1794.

The Secretary at War moved, that 60,244 men, including 3882 invalids, commissioned and non-commissioned officers, be granted to his majesty for the service of the year 1794.

The Secretary at War also moved for a grant of the different expences of the army ordinaries and extraordinaries, as well as for the subsistence of the above mentioned troops, all which were agreed to;

As were those of the ordnance, on the motion of Capt. Berkeley.

In the course of these several motions, much conversation ensued relative to the conduct of ministers in carrying on the war, which was alternately approved and condemned by the ministerial and opposition parties.

On Tuesday, on the report of the committee of supply being read a second time, the Secretary at War observed that the expences of the staff both at Toulon and the West Indies, were included in the 97,000l. voted for the staff of the army.

The report of the committee of ways and means on the land tax bill, being read, the Solicitor General proposed that a clause should be inserted, exempting the Roman Catholics from the payment of a double land tax—A clause to that purport will accordingly be introduced in the bill.

Mr. Adam, in a speech of considerable length, wherein he shewed the necessity of introducing grand juries into the criminal law of Scotland,

land, and also, the right of appeal, by way of writ of error, from the decisions of the judiciary and circuit courts of that part of the kingdom, to the British House of Lords—moved, previous to the motion for bringing in a bill for that purpose, That a committee be appointed, and ordered to report their opinion on the same.

This was opposed by Mr. Anstruther, the Solicitor General, Serjeant Watson, and the Master of the Rolls—on the ground of the law being fixed as it now stands, by the union; and also that the same was satisfactory to the people of that country.

These opinions were combated by Serjeant Adair and Mr. Fox, who denied both of the positions. On a division, there appeared for Mr. Adam's motion 31—against 126—majority 95.

On Wednesday, the house resolved itself into a committee of ways and means, Mr. Hobart in the chair.

Mr. Pitt said, that in order to lay before the committee as fully as was necessary, and as briefly as the nature and importance of the subject would admit, the expences which must be the consequence of the present contest, into which the violence of our enemies has forced us, and the means whereby we are to provide for the same, he should observe the following order in his statements: He should first state the expences of the prosecution of the war, next the supply and the ways and means, and lastly, the conditions of loan, and the taxes which it was necessary for them to impose upon their constituents, upon this pressing occasion, and he trusted that as the contest was for the whole, they would not grudge to contribute a part. The first, and what was considered the chief object of the kingdom, was the naval force of the country: The exertions which had been used in this department, had already been sufficiently enlarged upon in the

several discussions which took place in the committee of supply; but he must again beg leave to say, that they have been greater than ever have been known at any period of any former war in which this country has been ever engaged; there had been already voted in the committee of supply 85,000 seamen, and had been actually employed in the last year from 60 to 70,000; and if the exigency of the case required it, they might be augmented to 100,000. In the army the exertions had also been astonishing, for in the last year there was an actual augmentation of the army, of 30,000 men, which including the militia and fencible regiments, made the amount of the British troops engaged in the service 140,000. The foreign troops engaged in British pay amounted to between 30 and 40,000 men; and in the department of the ordnance there were employed between 5 and 6000, making in the whole 250,000 effective men in the British service. If he could find means for the provision of so very extensive an establishment, without any extraordinary pressure on the public, he hoped ministers would be in some degree acquitted of that neglect and inattention, with which they had been so frequently charged; and in the burthen necessary to be imposed, he trusted gentlemen would concur with cheerfulness, when they considered the magnitude of the object which they pursued, being no less than the security of their liberties, their constitution and their country. He observed there was also a large provision to be made for exceedings, which from the great exertions used in the former year, had unavoidably occurred; these, he said, he would mention in another place. He next proceeded to the second head of his statement: After having voted so large a force, it was their duty to consider the supply necessary for their support—There had been already voted for the

NAVY.

NAVY.	
General service of the navy	£4420,000
Ordinaries - - -	558,000
Extraordinaries - - -	547,000

Total amount of the navy - 5,525,000

ARMY.	
General Service - - -	4,362,000
Foreign troops - - -	1,169,000
Extraordinaries for 1793 - -	808,000

Total of the army estimate 6,339,000

ORDNANCE.	
Ordinaries - - -	324,000
Extraordinaries - - -	377,000
Debt incurred last year, and unfunded - - -	643,000

Total of the ordnance - 1,344,000

He observed, that the sum of 808,000*l.* under the expences of the army, had been provided for by the vote of credit last year, but the money had been applied to another purpose, the purchasing of corn, which might have been necessary; but, in case it should not be wanted, it could be again sold at a small loss; with regard to the debt incurred in the ordnance department, it rose from the very extraordinary augmentations necessary in that department, from the very large trains of artillery it was found necessary to employ. He then stated,

Total amount of navy, army and ordnance - - -	13,209,000
Miscellaneous services - - -	206,000
Deficiencies in grants - - -	474,000
Ditto in land and malt tax - -	350,000
Additional sum to the commissioners for discharging the national debt - - -	200,000
Exchequer bills - - -	5,500,000

Total amount to be provided for 19,939,000

He observed in this statement, with regard to the sum of 200,000*l.* voted to the commissioners for the payment of the national debt, in addition to the funded million, which had been voted the two preceding years, and when taxes to the amount of 200,000*l.* had been repaid, that it should not be neglected in the present, though a year of war. With regard to the exchequer bills, he observed, that it had been usual to state

them in the account, the general course being to permit those that were in circulation answer those which were funded; but as it was his intention to take a vote of credit for 2,000,000*l.* this year, to answer any great or sudden emergency in the same manner as he had taken a vote of credit for 1,500,000*l.* last year, he thought it best to state the account in the manner he had done; and therefore from the sum of 19,939,000*l.* he had a right to deduct 3,500,000*l.* the amount of the floating exchequer bills, which left the sum to be provided for 16,439,000*l.*

He then proceeded to the statement of the ways and means for answering this expence :

#### WAYS AND MEANS.

Malt tax - - -	2,750,000
Exchequer bills - - -	3,500,000
Growing produce of taxes, after answering charges of consolidated fund - - -	2,197,000
From the East-India Company - -	500,000
Loan - - -	11,000,000
	19,947,000

The produce of the taxes for the year, ending the 5th of January, 1794, amounted to 13,941,000*l.* this was something less than the produce of the year 1791, which was a year of extraordinary prosperity, and after a continuance of peace for nine years. But, for his calculation for the present year, take, as he had done upon a former occasion, an average of four years, by which it appeared, that the amount of the taxes for the next year, or the growing produce of

The sinking fund amounted to 13,994,000

Charges on funded debt - - -	11,391,000
Interest and charges on the loan for Spanish armament - - -	250,000
Taxes which were laid on, on account of this armament, and would soon expire - - -	156,000

Total charges on consolidated fund - - - 11,797,000

Which left the growing produce, from 5th April 1794, to 5th April 1795 - - - 2,197,000

He



He next proceeded to state the extraordinary expences of the present year above the peace establishment.

Excess in the navy	-	-	3,520,000
Ditto army	-	-	4,592,000
Ditto ordnance	-	-	170,000
Ditto miscellanies	-	-	970,000
Extraordinaries	-	-	2,000,000
			<hr/>
			11,252,000

He then proceeded to state the situation of the navy debt, which it was his intention to fund as soon as possible; at present it amounted to 3,200,000*l*. He did not propose to fund the entire of this immediately, but only so much as navy bills had been issued for previously to March 1793, which he believed, would amount to about 1,900,000*l*. if he could get the holders of those bills to consent to have it funded on reasonable terms. He then stated to the committee the terms upon which he had obtained the loan, which, considering all circumstances, he thought he had obtained it upon such terms as were favourable both to the parties, and to the public. On Saturday at the close of the market, with perhaps some little variation, but trifling, 3 per cents, were at 67½, 4 per cents, 84, and a small fraction; and long annuities 20 years purchase. The mode in which he had determined to make the loan, was to give for each 100*l*. in specie, 100*l*. 3 per cents. 25*l*. 4 per cents. and the remainder, whatever it should be, in the long annuities.

He next mentioned two duties which he should propose to repeal; one on gloves, the amount of which was but trifling, and attended with many disagreeable circumstances in the collection; the other a tax not at all productive, viz. the duty on births and burials; the repeal of these two would make it necessary to provide for the sum of 10,600*l*. which was the amount of these duties, in some other way.

Vol. XII,

ADDITIONAL TAXES.

The first sum he had to apply to meet the expences of the loan, was the surplus of the taxes of the year 1791, laid on in consequence of the Spanish armament, which he proposed to make perpetual: the next, the excess of the duty on spirits in Scotland above the produce of the tax on coals, in lieu of which it had been laid on; the new duties he meant to propose was, first, a duty on home-made spirits, and also on foreign spirits. This was a tax, he believed, no gentleman would oppose. The only reason it had ever been opposed was, that when carried to too great an extent, it was an enticement to smuggling, and defrauding the revenue. This was not now so likely to be the case; for the smugglers had received so severe a check, and so complete an interruption to their illicit traffic, that there was little danger to be apprehended on that score. His next tax was an additional duty on bricks and tiles. The former duty of 2*s*. 6*d*. per thousand, had not checked in the smallest degree, the rage of building. He proposed also a tax on stones and slates, which, he observed, came within the same evil as the former, being also employed in building; but as it would be a difficult matter to collect a duty upon all that should be raised from quarries, he should only propose a duty on such as came coastwise. He next proposed a tax upon what was a mere article of luxury, crown and plate glass; he proposed also a tax upon paper; and lastly a tax upon attorneys—he proposed that every person who should be hereafter articulated to an attorney, should pay a duty of 100*l*. upon being admitted. (The loud and reiterated applause which ensued upon mentioning this tax, strongly proves the contemptible opinion that pettifoggers have brought that profession into). When the applause subsided, Mr. Pitt wished that he could have laid on such

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a tax

a tax upon the profession as would have rendered any other article in his budget unnecessary; but that would destroy even what was useful in the profession. The measure had been suggested to him by a very high legal authority, and he was not himself averse to the hint.

#### ESTIMATE OF ADDITIONAL TAXES.

Surplus of taxes imposed in the year 1791 - - - 385,000

Duty of spirits in Scotland, laid on in lieu of the duty on coals - - 43,000

Home-made spirits 1d. per gallon 107,000

Foreign spirits { On brandy 10d. } 136,000  
                          { On rum, 8d. }

Additional duty on bricks and tiles 1s. 6d. per thousand - - - 70,000

Slates carried coastways, 10s. per ton; stones ditto, 2s. 6d. per ton 30,000

Crown glass, 8s. per cwt. plate do. 10s. 8d. per ditto - - - 52,000

Paper, upon the value - - - 63,000

Attornies - - - - - 25,000

Total 911,000

Interest to be paid thereby 908,600

Surplus 2,400

Mr. Pitt then contended for the excellence of the manner in which the provision was made, and its nature; it was not to arise from new and uncertain duties, but from such as we had experience of, and of which we could form a just estimate; the taxes had not been laid upon any of the essential articles of life, but such as were, in their nature, articles of luxury, or injury. He expatiated on the large and ample provision made for the unfunded debt. The discharge of the national debt, upon which, in a great measure, depended the credit and prosperity of the kingdom, had not been neglected. The usual million, which has been for some years accumulating at compound interest, had been provided for; and also the additional sum of 200,000l. which had been only added in a time of unexampled prosperity. And also another sum of 150,000l. in consequence of the new debt: for he was determined, so long as he held the situation in which he then was, to meet every

new debt with an immediate provision. He enlarged upon the advantageous terms of the loan, a thing almost unexampled in former wars, for he believed there was hardly ever before an instance of the minister making his loan at the market price. The state of the revenue was also, considering all the circumstances, very flattering; the estimate of the taxes were grounded either on an average of four years, or the produce of the last year, either of which was a fair ground of estimation, and not likely to fail. The first was the ground on which he had hitherto formed his estimates, and with success; the latter might also be considered a good ground of estimation, being the first year of a war, in which the trade was likely to suffer more than at a more advanced period, when we were in ample preparation. Circumstances of Europe too were more favourable to our trade, than at the commencement of the war, many places being now in our hands, which were then in the hands of our enemies. He adverted to the stagnation of commercial credit in the beginning of the last year, which threatened so dreadful an injury to trade; but it had again revived in a manner that must astonish every person who knew its situation so late as six months since. He then entered into a calculation, by which he shewed, that the revenue of the current year, if the estimate held, would furnish a surplus of 523,000l. towards the expences of the ensuing year. He concluded by saying, that every exertion was necessary on our part, for that we were now in a situation the most arduous, that ever the dispensations of providence had placed us, either as individuals, or a nation.

On Friday, Feb. 7, Mr. Wilberforce, pursuant to his notice, rose, to move for leave to bring in a bill, for the abolition of the trade in slaves, carried on between the British and the foreign West India islands.

He

He said, this bill was agreeable to the opinion expressed by the house in a former session, in which it was determined, that the trade should be gradually abolished. He understood, that an opposition was intended to his motion; upon what account he could not tell; he should therefore content himself, with moving for leave to bring in the bill.

The motion was opposed by Sir W. Young, Mr. Lechmere, Mr. Cawthorne, Mr. Dent, Alderman Newnham, Col. Tarleton, Mr. East, and Mr. Peel, upon the principle that it was an infringement upon private property, and that this was by no means a period in which the commerce of the country was to be decreased; besides, it was contended that it would be indecent to take up the subject now, when the House of Peers were employed in examining into it.

Several other members spoke on each side of the question, which being at length put, the house divided—Ayes 63—Noes 40.

On Monday, Feb. 10, Mr. Whitbread moved, that the treaty between the king of Great Britain and the elector of Hanover, with respect to the number of troops furnished by the electorate, might be laid before the house.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer said, there had been precedents for employing Hanoverian troops for the service of this country, and that articles had been drawn up upon what terms the troops of the electorate were to be employed, but he believed there could be no instance of the production of a treaty, as no treaty did in fact exist.

Mr. Whitbread then desired that a copy of the article, contract or by what other name the right honourable gentleman might choose to call it, should be laid before the house.—The motion was put and carried.

Mr. Grey made some observations on the recent disembarkation of the Hessian troops, and moved, "that the employment of foreigners in

services of military trusts, or bringing foreign troops into the kingdom, without the consent of parliament, is contrary to law."

Mr. Powys and Mr. Wyndham were against the motion; Lord G. Cavendish and Major Maitland for it.

Mr. Serjeant Adair wished the motion had not been made, and moved the previous question, which, after a debate that continued till eleven o'clock, was carried on a division—Ayes 184—Noes 35.

On Wednesday, Feb. 12, Mr. Adam moved for all the authentic documents, copies, and extracts of the trials of Mess. Muir and Palmer.

Mr. Pitt wished to defer the motion, as he was not prepared either to reject or assent to it. If on enquiry it should merely be understood as affording information, he would readily agree to it; but if it should, from preceding practice, cast the least imputation on the legality and discretion of the sentences, he should oppose it, from the clearest conviction of their propriety.

Mr. Adam then deferred his motion till Friday next, on which day, if he should not succeed, he said he would give notice when he should bring forward his motion on the merits of these trials, to which the present motion was only preparatory.

Alderman Newnham wished to know when Mr. Wilberforce, and the committee to whom it was referred, meant to bring forward the motion on the slave trade.

The speaker observed, the only way of obtaining public information was by a motion criminating the committee for delay. He must otherwise be content with such private information as he could gain.

Mr. Wilberforce said the delay had been occasioned by an indisposition which had confined him to his house.

Mr. M. A. Taylor presented a petition from various merchants of the City of London, complaining of

a neglect of the admiralty in the appointment of convoys.—Ordered to lie on the table.

Various petitions from manufacturing places relative to machines invented for diminishing labour were, on motion, referred to a committee, who were directed to examine the same, and report their opinion to the house.

On the subject, Mr. Pitt said, he admitted there was weight in the petitions; but thought the question should include the general interest of the country.

The house in a committee of supply, voted

465*l.* 11*s.* 10½*d.* for accommodations in the House of Peers, and for warming and ventilating it.

27,092*l.* 4*s.* 6½*d.* for the French refugee clergy and laity,

3,376*l.* 8*s.* for works at the Fleet Prison.

9,255*l.* 6*s.* 9*d.* for works at Somerset Place.

1,814*l.* 15*s.* 4*d.* on account of land-tax paid for salaries of commissioners for auditing public accounts.

2,111*l.* 1*s.* for debts contracted by Mr. Tilly, agent and consul general at Tripoli.

1,084*l.* 15*s.* for trouble of persons enquiring into losses sustained in evacuating the Mosquito Shore in 1786.

269*l.* 9*s.* 11*d.* for surveys at Cape Breton.

1,504*l.* 10*s.* 6*d.* for monies issued to the Bishop of Quebec; for stationary, for Upper Canady, and for expences of administration of justice, in Newfoundland.

537*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* to commissioners for enquiring into the laws, &c. of Jersey.

19,500*l.* for American civil officers.

248*l.* 18*s.* for losses sustained by Mr. Staerbruck, by his removal from Nova Scotia.

14,585*l.* 10*s.* 6*d.* for his majesty's service abroad, between January 5, 1793, and January 5, 1794.

46,619*l.* 13*s.* 7*d.* for monies issued pursuant to addresses.

2,043*l.* for commissioners of woods and forests.

211,295*l.* 6*s.* 8½*d.* for American sufferers, pursuant to an act of 23 Geo. III.

56,796*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* for ditto, pursuant to an act of 30 Geo. III.

10,749*l.* 3*s.* 8*d.* for expences of prosecuting Mr. Hastings.

19,820*l.* 8*s.* 10*d.* for sending provisions, &c. to, and expences of convicts at New South Wales.

11,393*l.* 4*s.* 8*d.* for expences of convicts on the Thames.

13,576*l.* 17*s.* 8½*d.* for convicts in Langstone and Portsmouth harbours.

18,844*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.* for the extraordinary expences of the mint.

13,000*l.* for the African forts and settlements.

1,500,000*l.* to pay exchequer bills.

## P O E T R Y.

### THE ITALIAN BISHOP.

AN ANECDOTE.

BY THE REV. MR. BYRON.

**T**HERE is no kind of a fragmental note,  
That pleases better than an anecdote;  
Or fact unpublisch'd, when it comes to rise,  
And give the more agreeable surprize:  
From long oblivion sav'd, an useful hint  
Is doubly grateful, when reviv'd in print;  
A late and striking instance of this kind  
Delighted many an attentive mind;  
This anecdote, my task is, to rehearse,  
As highly fit to be consign'd to verse.

There liv'd a bishop, once upon a time,  
Where is not said, but Italy the clime;  
An honest, pious man, who understood  
How to behave as a true bishop should;  
But through an opposition, form'd to blast  
His good designs, by men of different cast,  
He had some tedious struggles, and a train  
Of rude affronts, and insults to sustain;  
And did sustain, with calm unruffled mind  
He bore them all, and never once repin'd:  
An intimate acquaintance, one who knew  
What difficulties he had waded through  
Time after time, and very much admir'd  
A patience so provok'd, and to untir'd,

Made

Made bold to ask him, if he could impart,  
Or teach the secret of his happy art?  
Yes, said the good old prelate, that I can,  
And 'tis a plain and practicable plan;  
For all the secret, that I know of, lies  
In making a right use of my own eyes.  
Beg'd to explain himself, how that should be—

Why, in whatever state I am, said he,  
I first look up to heav'n; as well aware,  
That to get thither is my main affair.  
I then look down upon the earth; and think

In a short space of time, how small a  
chink  
I shall possess of its extensive ground;  
And when I cast my seeing eyes around,  
Where more distress appears, on ev'ry side,  
Amongst mankind, than I myself abide.  
So that, reflecting on my own concern,  
First—where true happiness is plac'd, I learn:

Next—let the world to what it will pretend,  
I see where all its good and ill must end.  
Last—how unjust it is as well as vain,  
Upon a fair discernment to complain.  
Thus, looking up and down, and round about,  
Right use of eyes may find the secret out:  
With heav'n in view—his real home—in fine,  
Nothing on earth should make a man repine.

L I N E S,

DESIGNED FOR THE TOMB-STONE OF  
MR. CHARLES HOLLAND.

A WAY, ye trifling flatterers of the  
dead,  
And grave on other tombs, the varnish'd  
tale,  
Here virtues rest which need no other aid  
Than truth to weigh them in her even  
scale.

THE SWEET NEGLECT.

BY BEN. JOHNSON.

STILL to be neat, still to be dress'd,  
As you were going to a feast;  
Still to be powder'd, still perfume'd  
Lady, it is to be presum'd,  
Tho' art's hid causes are not found  
All is not sweet, all is not found.  
Give me a look, give me a face,  
That makes simplicity a grace;  
Robes loosely flowing are as free,  
Such sweet neglect more taketh me,  
Than all the adulteries of art;  
They strike mine eyes, but not my heart.

L I N E S

COPIED FROM AN OLD PRINT.

CROWNES have their compass, length  
of days their date,  
Triumphs their tombs, solicit her fate:

Of more than earth, can earth make none  
partaker,  
But knowledge makes the king most like  
his maker.

I N S C R I P T I O N

FOR AN OAK IN FENHURST PARK.  
BY THE LATE MR. F. COVENTRY.

STRANGER, kneel here! to age due  
homage pay,  
When great Eliza held Britannia's sway,  
My growth began—the same illustrious  
morn,  
Joy to the hour! saw gallant Sidney born,  
Sidney, the darling of Arcadia's swains!  
Sidney, the terror of the martial plains!  
He perish'd early; I just staid behind  
An hundred years: and lo! my clifed  
rind,  
My wither'd boughs foretell destruction  
nigh;  
We all are mortal; oaks and heroes die.

S O N N E T.

M AN stalks gigantic, lord in proud  
extreme,  
O'er all creation's wond'rous scope can  
give,  
Bow'd by no yoke, scarce to the Great Su-  
preme,  
Whose sanction bad mortality to live.  
Yet what pursues he? Lucre's molten  
pelf,  
Or pleasure's filken chain of visions  
dear,  
Of knowledge boasting, while unknown  
himself  
And loudly cavils at existence here.

To be, and yet to be, is but the small de-  
mand,  
Seek then religion's purifying glow,  
It tranquillizes time, with stubborn hand,  
Whilst hoary age hopes endless life to  
know.

Our utmost here fills but a requiem page,  
Poor, frail memorial of the passing age.

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S O N N E T.

W OMAN, thou sweet urbanity to  
guile,  
Life's tedious course away—I love thy  
smile,  
Thy brow soft animated sweet to please  
Thy full-bright-eye as vestal fire chaste,  
Thy cheek like Hebe's bloom, and lit-  
tling waist  
With native movement, elegance and ease.  
Of these, the fair, from nature genuine  
boast,  
Whose charms replete with wonder strikes  
the host,  
Yet when she meets my gaze, to sigh I'm  
prone,

That



That peerless beauty, in a Paphian form,  
Like summer rose, is tribute to the worm,  
Short boast that once inimitably shone.  
But truth predominating points the meed  
All here is short, whilst endless scenes suc-  
ceed.

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## S O N N E T.

Few are the joys to man allotted here,  
Tho' hope and fancy make the treasure  
more,

Yet worldly incident exhausts the store,  
As life evolves along its certain sphere.

Then why not ours, the mortal path to  
choose,

To tread a noble, or like peasant stray,  
(Abject in garb the bosom calmly gay),  
Or toil and care with apathy to lose.

It should be so—but hark—whence comes  
that groan

Borne by the wind? My fancy leads o'er  
seas,

## M A R R I E D.

John Wray, Esq. of Hull, to Miss Milnes,  
of Aithover.

Charles Stoner, Esq. of Stoner, to Miss  
Parry.

The Rev. John Carbound, of Weston, to  
Miss Warren, of Tadnestone.

William Hawke, Esq. of Muirtown, Staf-  
fordshire, to Mrs. Harris.

Thomas Maffinghead, Esq. of Small-  
brook Park, to Miss Waterhouse, of Buck-  
ingham.

John Hester, of Lincoln's-Inn, to Miss  
Hyde, of Islington.

Henry Hutchins, Esq. of Poltair House,  
Cornwall, to Miss Emma Rebow, of the  
Park, near Colchester.

John Seymour, Esq. to Miss Lucy Bel-  
chier.

The Rev. F. E. Lay, of Bennet College,  
to Miss Sparks, of Hampstead.

John Moore, Esq. of Dudley, to Miss  
Sparks, of Hampstead.

Dr. Pearson, of Birmingham, to Mrs.  
Startin.

— Wellwood, Esq. to Miss Taylor.

Thomas Bolton, Esq. of the Middle  
Temple, to Miss Bridgeman, of Grocers-  
Hall.

Richard Blanchard, Esq. of Calcutta, to  
Miss Elizabeth Peacock, of Dunny Waske,  
in Yorkshire.

Trafford Trafford, Esq. to Miss Hen-  
rietta Bolton.

The Rev. — Kemp, of Colchester, to  
Miss Blythe, of Langham, Suffolk.

— Dashwood, Esq. brother of Sir  
John Dashwood, to Miss Calender, of Lei-  
cester-fields.

Jeremiah Clive, Esq. of Suffolk-lane, to  
Miss Holford, of Hampstead.

To where I view, beneath the vertick  
sun,

The lath-cut-slave—'twas his the heavy  
moan—

He sinks, he dies—sure life to me is ease,  
O heaven! thine the will, not mine be  
done.

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## THE OFFSPRING OF TIME.

POOR Nan, who from a slippery trick,  
Found proof that she was frail,

With plaintive tone begg'd sweet-heart,  
Dick,

Of promise not to fail.

The hour was past—Dick answer'd mild,  
To be excus'd he'd rather,

Nine months she knew had brought the  
child,

So Time must be the father.

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J. Sheppard Kellick, Esq. to Miss Ha-  
merton.

Henry Gawler, Esq. of Lincoln's-Inn,  
to Miss Lydia Neal.

Tycho Pilbron, Esq. to Miss E. Stab-  
tack, of Exeter.

Richard Messiter, Esq. of Wincanton,  
Somersetshire, to Miss Brickle, of Shaftes-  
bury.

Lewis Mackenzie, Esq. to Miss Lock-  
hart, both of Edinburgh.

At Clifton, John Bonamy, Esq. to Miss  
Helen Edgen, daughter of C. Edgen, Esq.  
of Clifton Hill.

T. Shuttleworth, Esq. of the county of  
Warwick, to Miss Simpson.

The Rev. George Harrison Lardner, of  
Macclesfield, to Miss Edge, of Chester.

The Rev. Edward Beckwith, M. A. to  
Miss Jane Chard, of Rosecot.

R. Brudenell, Esq. equerry to her ma-  
jesty, to Miss Cook, of Holles-street.

At Bath, Lord Belmore, to Miss Cald-  
wall.

John Duke of Athol, to Lady Macleod.

The Rev. William Griffith, to Miss Ro-  
gers, of Otterton, Devon.

John Marrat, Esq. of Maningtree, to  
Miss Phillibrown, of Mistley.

John Thomas Hope, Esq. to Miss Ed-  
wards, daughter of the late Sir Thomas  
Edwards.

The Rev. W. C. Willson, to Miss Ca-  
tharine Harrison, of Woolterton Place,  
Bucks.

Ralph Cartwright, Esq. of Arjaths,  
Northamptonshire, to Miss Emma Maude.

R. Grange, Esq. to Miss Burrow, of  
Bromley, Kent.

Hugh Ross, Esq. of Sladfield, in Scot-  
land, to Miss Mary Baillie, of Tarrel.

John

John March, jun. Esq. to Miss Barker.  
The Rev. W. S. Willes, to Miss Do-  
rothea Capper.  
Edgell Wyatt, Esq. of Milton Place,  
Surrey, to Miss Elizabeth Pococke, of  
Inglesfield.  
William Palmer, Esq. to Mary Craw-  
ford.

D I E D.

Aged 76, the Rev. James Broote, rector  
of Hill Crome, in the county of Worcester.  
Aged 105, at Roxburgh, in Scotland,  
Andrew Gammells, who served as a dra-  
goon in Queen Anne's wars.  
Mrs. Margaret Campbell, of Edinburgh.  
At Edinburgh, the Rev. W. Moll.  
Aged 74, at Doncaster, Mrs. Priscilla  
Calkce.  
Aged 92, Mrs. Wainwright, of Melton  
Mowbray.  
Aged 90, Mrs. Crowcher, of Chatham.  
The Rev. — Jennings, head master of  
St. Saviour's grammar-school.  
Henry Reeves, Esq. of Wrington, near  
Bath.  
Samuel Adey, Esq. of Dunsley, in the  
county of Gloucester.  
Mrs. Ann Mills, of Lincoln.  
Aged 78, Samuel Ralh, Esq. East Dur-  
ham, Norfolk.  
The Hon. Seymour Finch, captain.  
The Rev. James Powell, rector of Raine,  
near Braintree, Essex.  
Wm. Norris, Esq. of Nonfuch, near  
Devises.  
Mrs. Wade, of New North-street, Red  
Lion-square.  
Baron Power, of the court of Exchequer,  
in Ireland.  
Thomas Manningham, M. D. of Bath.  
Francis Burdet, Esq. of Foremark, in the  
county of Derby.  
Benjamin Pingo, Esq. York herald at  
arms; he was suffocated at the Haymarket  
Theatre.  
Lady of Sir Thomas Hyde Page, knight.  
Mrs. Gabriel Matthias, of Middle Scot-  
land-yard.  
Thomas Turgridge, Esq. of Bath.  
Aged 82, Mrs. House, sister of Henry  
House, Esq. of Weltminster.  
Miss Whitby, of Northumberland-street.  
Richard Burke, Esq. barrister at law,  
brother of Edmund Burke, Esq.  
Tobias Stapleton, of Lincoln's-Inn, Esq.  
At Berwick, aged 82, Capt. Ch. Ferrot,  
of the invalids.  
The Rev. John Shebbeare, of St. Mary  
Hall, Oxford.  
John Carter, Esq. alderman of Port-  
smouth.  
Aged 93, Mrs. Lock, of Leominster.  
John Ross, Esq. of Preston Pans.  
The Rev. Charles Herries, vicar of Llam-  
jamies, Glamorganhire.  
Mrs. Rawlinson, of Grantham.

— Greuber, Esq. lately arrived from  
the East Indies.  
Miss Elizabeth Smith, of Chelsea.  
Sir John Fenn, knight, of East Denham,  
Norfolk.  
Richard Anthony Eyre, residuary of  
York cathedral.  
Hugh Jones, Esq. of Hertford-street.  
Aged 66, the Rev. Wm. Hughes, vicar  
of All Saints, Northampton.  
Erasmus Saunders, Esq. fellow of All  
Souls College, Oxford.  
John Morant, Esq. of Clatford, near  
Andover.  
Aged 80, Samuel Chamberlain, late of  
the island of Jamaica.  
J. Tiril Morin, Esq. keeper of the papers  
in the Treasury Office.  
Miss Thomas, of Great Marlow, in  
Bucks.  
Miss Leonora Hobart.  
Benjamin White, Esq. late of Fleet-street.  
Aged 83, James Tomkinson, Esq. of  
Nantwich, Cheshire.  
Lieut. Col. Dalrymple, of Fordel.  
Miss Margaret Wanchope, of Dalkeith.  
William Brummell, Esq. of Charles-  
street, Berkeley-square.  
At Edinburgh, Lady Cranstown.  
In the East-Indies, Peter Culiem, Esq.  
Capt. Thorley, of the Essex militia.  
Charles Ambler, Esq. attorney general  
to the queen.  
Miss Frances Rebow, daughter of J. M.  
Rebow, Esq.  
Charles Ellis, Esq. a captain in the navy.  
Suddenly, William Larkins, Esq. an  
East-India husband.  
Aged 89, Mrs. Ashwell, of Birmingham.  
Peter Dunbar, Esq. of Bathwick, in Scot-  
land.  
Lieut. Godfrey, of the navy.  
Alex. Donaldson, Esq. of Edinburgh.  
Mrs. Weatherall, of Upper Tooting.  
Mrs. Charlotte Andrée, of Hatton-street.  
Mrs. Peyton, wife of vice-admiral Peyton.  
Mrs. Mary Tatnall, of Great Marybone-  
street.  
The Rev. Simpson Newberry, D. D.  
rector of Burey, Herts.  
Miss Bull, of Burstead, Essex.  
Peter Mallard, Esq. of Plaistow, Essex.  
Miss Hobart, niece of the Earl of Buck-  
inghamshire.  
William Bownlow Knox, Esq. son of  
the Hon. Thomas Knox.  
Mr. Jackson, wife of Dr. Jackson, of  
Hanover-square.  
Charles Scott, M. D. of Queen Anne-  
street, East.  
Mrs. Judith Dickinson, of Tottenham.  
Miss Susan Ramsay, of Gogar House,  
Scotland.  
Richard Rideout, Esq. of the Hereford  
militia.  
Robert Cooper Lee, Esq. of Bedford-  
square.

James Davison, Esq. one of the vice-presidents of the Society of Arts.

Sir Wm. Johnstone, bart. of Carkisben.

Robert Gunnell, Esq. one of the clerks of the House of Commons.

Wm. Kerr, Esq. of Dumbarray.

Mrs. Diana Chudleigh, sister of the late Dukes of Kingston.

Henry Colenan, Esq. of the county of Leicester.

Edward Atkins, of Ketteringham Hall, in the county of Norfolk.

The Right Hon. Hercules Landford Rowley, knight of the shire for the county of Meath, in Ireland.

Mrs. Gordon, of Bamff.

Thomas Willson, Esq. of Highbury-place.

Captain Turing, of the fort of Panagra, in the East-Indies, which place he commanded.

At Futtigur, Capt. Peter Cullen.

At Nassau, in New Providence, Major Sir Henry Marr, knt.

At Beaumaris, in the Isle of Anglesea, the lady of Sir Thomas Hyde Page, knt.

At an advanced age, at Southgate, Wm. Bates, Esq. formerly deputy collector of the customs outwards.

At Morris Hall, near Edinburgh, William Davison, Esq. aged upwards of 80.

At Ratifoon, aged 82, Mr. T. J. Galli-

ries, the oldest member of the diplomatic corps at the diet of the empire.

John Powell, Esq. at the Priory Wood, county of Hereford.

At her house in Hereford, Mrs. Dansey.

At Watfall, aged near 70, Mrs. E. Devey.

At Claybrook, county of Leicester, Mrs. Mackinnor, wife of the Rev. Mr. Mackinnor, vicar of that parish.

At Cranbourn Lodge, Dorset, Catharine, wife of Lewis Tregoruell, Esq.

Capt. Daniel Harvey, aged 76, at his house at Wiverpoe, near Colchester.

Mrs. Orme, aged 53, of the gout in her stomach.

At Duddington, near Stamford, Mrs. Anne Algar, at an advanced age, and daughter to the late W. Algar, Esq. of Tixover, formerly high sheriff of the county of Rutland.

Found dead in his bed, the Rev. John Burne, of Lincoln.

At his house in Upper Brook-street, Thomas Brand, Esq.

After a short illness, the lady of Robert Fellowes, Esq. of Shottisham, county of Norfolk.

At Turin, in 51st year, her Royal Highness the Princess Savoy Carignan.

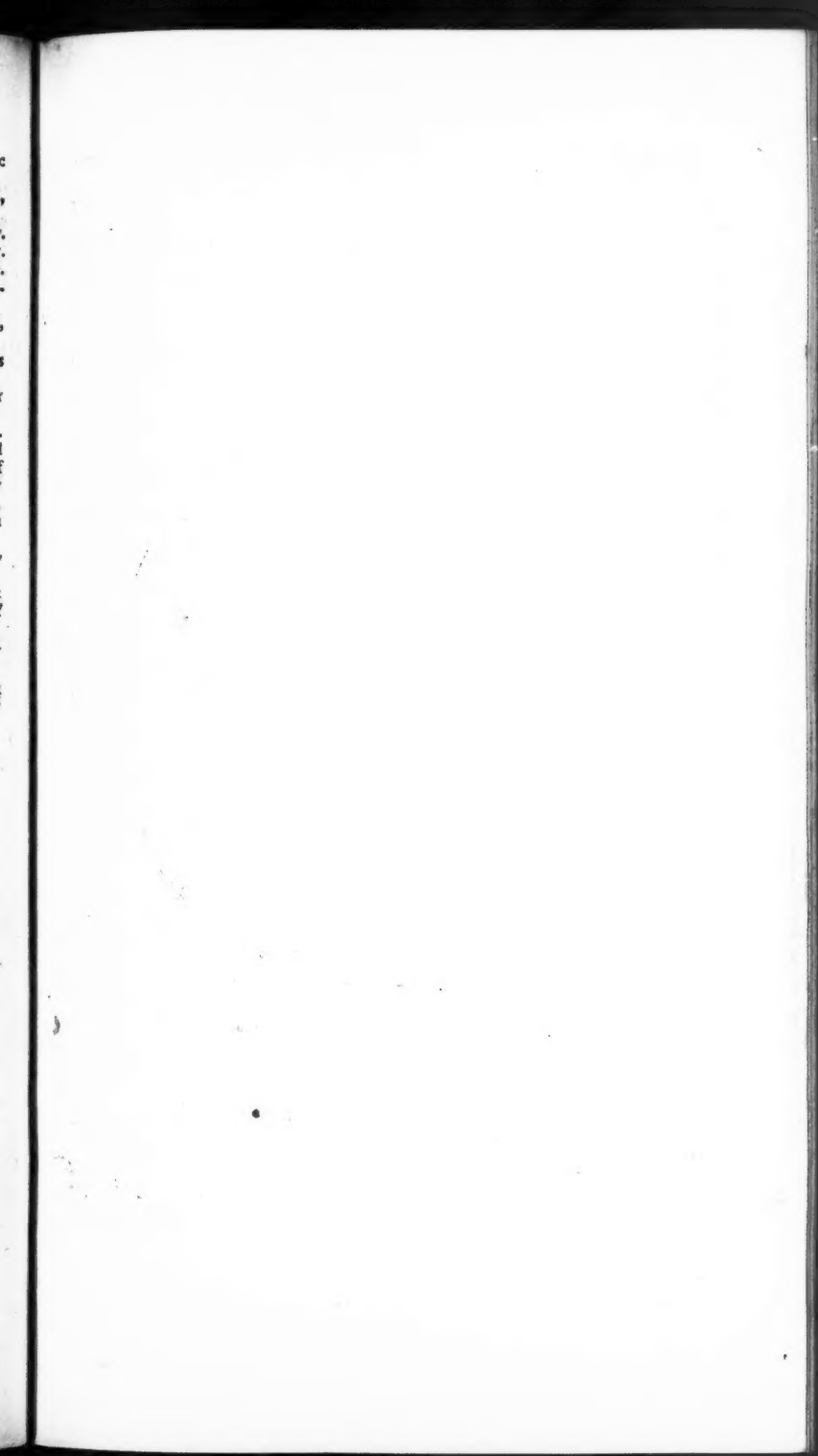
At his house in Palace-yard, Westminster, Henry Fiennes Pelham Clinton, Duke of Newcastle.

## PRICES OF STOCKS.

	Mar. 27.	April 3.	April 10.	April 17.
Bank Stock - - - -	shut	—	159 $\frac{1}{2}$	162 $\frac{1}{2}$
3 per Cent. Consolidated	67 $\frac{1}{2}$	67 $\frac{1}{2}$	68	68 $\frac{1}{2}$
4 per Cent. Consolidated	shut	—	81 $\frac{1}{2}$	83
5 per Cent. Navy - -	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	102	103 $\frac{1}{2}$
Long Annuities - - -	shut	—	19 11-16	19 $\frac{1}{2}$
Short Annuities - - -	shut	—	9 1-16	9 1-16
India Stock - - - -	shut	—	202 $\frac{1}{2}$	204 $\frac{1}{2}$
India Bonds - - - -	17s. pr.	16 pr.	par	8 pr.
South Sea Stock - - -	—	—	—	—
New Navy - - - -	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ dif.	4 dif.	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ dif.	2 dif.
Exchequer Bills - - -	4s. pr.	5 pr.	6 pr.	6 pr.
Lottery Tickets - - -	o o o	o o o	21. pr.	18s. pr.

## PRICES OF CORN AT THE CORN-MARKET.

	March 31.	April 7.	April 14.	April 21.
Wheat - - - -	34s. to 40s.	34s. to 40s.	34s. to 41s.	34s. to 41s.
Barley - - - -	25s. — 36s.	24s. — 34s.	24s. — 34s.	23s. — 34s.
Rye - - - -	31s. — 33s.	30s. — 33s.	30s. — 33s.	30s. — 33s.
Oats - - - -	20s. — 24s.	18s. — 20s.	20s. — 24s.	20s. — 24s.
Pale Malt - - - -	42s. — 46s.	41s. — 45s.	48s. — 44s.	40s. — 44s.
Amber ditto - - -	45s. — 47s.	43s. — 46s.	43s. — 46s.	45s. — 47s.
Peas - - - -	38s. — 42s.	36s. — 40s.	36s. — 38s.	34s. — 37s.
Beans - - - -	36s. — 39s.	37s. — 39s.	38s. — 40s.	37s. — 39s.
Tares - - - -	26s. — 30s.	30s. — 33s.	30s. — 33s.	26s. — 30s.
Fine Flour - - - -	40s. — 42s.	37s. — 38s.	37s. — 38s.	28s. — 32s.
Second ditto - - -	36s. — 39s.	34s. — 35s.	34s. — 35s.	40s. — 43s.
Third ditto - - - -	28s. — 32s.	25s. — 29s.	25s. — 29s.	38s. — 42s.



LITERARY MAGAZINE.



M. NECKER.

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